



School based safeguarding programmes: a critical investigation into the role of the police in schools

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Abstract

This thesis examines the role of the police in school based safeguarding education programmes, with a particular reference to Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. It explores the professional experiences and views of a wide range of professionals within the education and police sector. The safeguarding of children in a modern society is complex and carries a degree of risk to the professionals who protect children from the various types of harm in our communities. This study represents a part of the many strategies available in relation to the key professionals for safeguarding of children.

Whilst set in a financially challenging context, the research focused on the role of the police in school based safeguarding programmes and examined their role in a blurred landscape of police and education professionals. The study identified that the Police, or a member of their extended family, are the most valuable resource to present safeguarding awareness programmes to children in a school environment. It emerged that there is limited strategic governance on this point. This study proposes a strategic model for Local Safeguarding Children Boards to consider as part of their role to oversee the safeguarding of children in a local governance setting. This research has implications for professionals who safeguard children and introduces a change to current professional practice.

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Declaration

Whilst registered as a candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for any other academic award.

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List of Abbreviations

ACPO	Association of Chief Police Officers
AWSLCP	All Wales Schools Liaison Core Programme
ASB	Anti-Social Behaviour
CSE	Child Sexual Exploitation
DfE	Department for Education
DARE	Drug Abuse Resistance Education
HMIC	Her Majesty's Inspector of Constabularies
IOW	Isle of Wight
LSCB	Local Safeguarding Children Board
MASH	Multi Agency Safeguarding Hub
PC	Police Constable
PCC	Policing and Crime Commissioner
PCSO	Police and Community Support Officer
PSHE	Public Social Health Education
US	United States of America
SSP	Safer Schools Partnership

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Over recent years the issue of protecting children has become a focus for society. Media reports on high profile cases such as Victoria Climbié, Peter Connolly and the subsequent investigations represent one side of risks children face. On the other side is the often less visible, but equally emotive, subject of Child Sexual Exploitation as reported in the serious case reviews in Oxfordshire and Rotherham, whilst widely reported by the media and driven by learning points for professionals within the local authorities (RLSCB, 2014) and (OSCB, 2016).

'There is a difference between being safe and being responsible. Children who hold a parent's hand every time they cross the road are safe. However, unless they are taught to cross the road by themselves, they might not learn to do this independently'. (Ofsted, 2010).

This study will explore the broad subject of safeguarding children with a narrow focus on the police and role they play in the safeguarding of children in a school class room based environment. The police, like most other public sector bodies faced significant financial constraints following the formation of the coalition government in 2010 and the subsequent comprehensive spending review (HM Treasury, 2010).

When tackling such a financial challenge it is reasonable for the police to rationalise in some detail what their core role is and to move towards a more collaborative working arrangement and effectively '*deliver the same with less*'.

Set against the financial challenge, the police have to respond to a fast changing modern society and the influences a digital age has on children (Jordon, Sandra Rodney and Cocking, 2002). Whilst safeguarding is a broad term, and moves at the pace society moves, it requires multi agency partners to keep with the pace and protect children from modern day harm, all of this is set within a reducing budget.

The previous Labour Government led policies that connected crime with schools together with promoting an agenda that focused on school and police relationships (Hayden, Williamson and Webber, 2007 p.2) whilst set within the Safer Schools Partnership framework (Hayes and Williamson, 2008). Since the Comprehensive Spending Review in 2010, the police in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight have examined their commitment to schools and considered what, if any, is their role within a school environment.

This study has relied upon the definition of safeguarding as set out in 'Working Together to Safeguard Children' (2015) which, in essence, addresses:

Protecting children from maltreatment.

Preventing impairment of children's health and development.

Ensuring that children grow up in circumstances consistent with the provision of safe and effective care.

Taking action to enable all children to have the best outcomes.

This is the definition used by police and education in setting out policy and managing safeguarding of children. The definition is also used alongside the 'Keeping Children Safe in Education' (2016) guidance, both sets of guidance are linked with, and relevant to the research.

This study has considered an element of safeguarding work the police do within a school. Most schools across Hampshire and the Isle of Wight invite police officers or police community support officers into their schools to deliver a range of safeguarding awareness topics to their pupils within the Public Health and Social Education curriculum. The theme of the topics the police deliver to the schools is set within a safeguarding context, however the actual role of the police and the role of education is blurred on this issue. If their role is not clear it is reasonable for the police to challenge their commitment to this when facing budget constraints.

This study sets out to examine the role of the police with school-based safeguarding programmes with particular reference to Hampshire and the Isle of Wight which is the professional working location of the author. There is a notable lack of literature on this subject making the need for the research based evidence crucial. Whilst there is literature on safeguarding, children's connection to crime and schools, there is an absence of literature on the role of the police physically going into schools to deliver safeguarding or intervention programmes and their design.

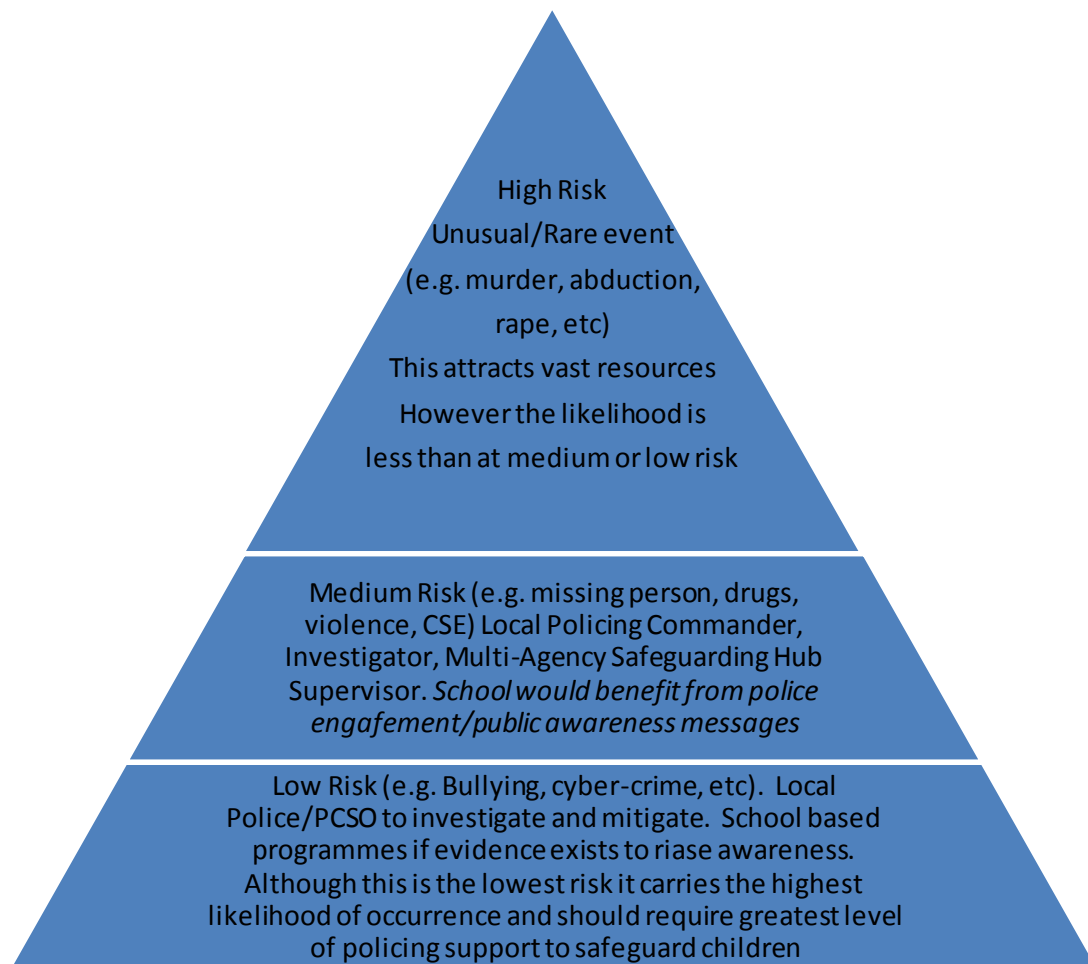
Levels of Harm and likelihood of the harm happening

The police become involved with safeguarding and crime issues with young people at many different levels. The police response often mirrors the level of harm, or in some instances, not necessarily to people (victims) but also the reputation of the organisation. The police define the levels of critical response into tiers (McPherson, 1996) & (College of Policing, 2017). This is focused, generally, on the higher end of harm, however, it is less clear how this overlays with the more general, but not necessarily unimportant issues. These may be described as 'universal issues'. The common feature and relevance to this study, is the role of the police with any of these issues at any point on the levels of harm pyramid.

To make this clearer, the chart below (fig 1:1) sets out a diagram showing of harm levels and the likelihood of the harm occurring, starting from the more serious crime type a high risk of harm. The chart also matches this to level of police response to the incident in the school. Safeguarding will be a consideration at each level of risk and whilst the high risk will be on a case by case basis, the moderate and low risk are more likely to be assessed as needing safeguarding involvement, but crucially most in need of safeguarding programmes and multi- agency support to stop any escalation of harm. This can be in a range of guises however, and school based safeguarding programmes will be an option at moderate and low risk, but less so at high risk. This is not prescriptive or agreed by any organisation, but simply a way of showing the range of harm issues that can affect a school or child in the school and what the role of the police would be to the level of harm.

Levels of Harm and likelihood

(Figure:1:1)



Chapter two of the study examines the broad concept of safeguarding children within the Children Act 1989 and 2004 and the ‘*working together to safeguard children 2006*’ (Department for Education, 2015) framework. The examination considered whether children are more likely to be offenders than victims. The literature draws upon academic, government reports and statistics to make the case that children are less likely to be offenders than they are to be victims; making the case for the research that children need to be safeguarded from variety of threats in a modern society.

Safeguarding is widened in this Chapter to include modern risks that children face such as Child Sexual Exploitation (CSE), cyber bullying and Radicalisation against Terrorism (Prevent). The arrangement to safeguard children within the Local Safeguarding Children Board (LSCB) is examined and highlights multi-agency partnership arrangements at a strategic level.

Chapter three provides an introductory overview of how school based intervention programmes are delivered. The chapter examines the Safer Schools Partnership, All Wales School Liaison Core Programme and the Drug Abuse Resistance Education Programme in the United States. All of these programmes, whether based in the United Kingdom or the United States, had similar outcomes and delivery methods to the aims of this study. A generic overview is provided on the process of learning that children go through and how they respond to different styles and modes of delivery.

Chapter four concerned itself with the methods by which the school based programmes are delivered and the site of the delivery. There was a look whether external speakers (the police) provided any more value than a teacher and what involvement the child could have in the design of the programmes. During the research it seemed sensible to identify where improvements could be made with the school-based programmes, whilst accepting the singular outcome of the role of police would be not be the focus of this new knowledge.

Chapter five outlines the research methodology chosen to explore the objectives of the study, namely a qualitative study. The chapter delineates which paradigm was chosen with a clear sound basis as to why and an explanation why other methods were considered but not chosen. The chapter describes how the research was physically carried out and how the purposive samples were chosen. Chapter six presents the findings of the study and set into context what they meant in relation to the aims and objectives of the research. The chapter demonstrates the methods used to analyse the data and explains the results.

Chapter seven provides the analysis of the research. The evidence was considered with competing arguments debated using both the evidence and in a minority of instances the professional judgement of the author. Crucially this chapter offers a model for professionals to consider that is cognisant of the evidence and could be introduced as a change in professional practice for the police and the statutory partners required to safeguard children.

Chapter eight presents the conclusions and implications of the proposed model and change in professional practice for the police, education, policy and further research. Anything that affects current working professional practice will have far reaching implications for the professionals. The requirement of the professional doctorate is to present a change to professional practice and to consider the wider implications.

The conclusion places the key issues into a succinct framework and argues research aims and objectives have been met. The role of the police in safeguarding school-based programmes has been examined together with the extent of the cohesiveness of the programmes. This is taken as being delivered at a multi-agency arrangement level together with its implications in professional practice. The study has offered a model to change current professional practice.

Motivation for the Research Project

I am currently a serving Chief Superintendent with the responsibility of Neighbourhoods and Public Protection. Sometime before taking this role and mid-way through my professional doctorate (taught phase) I was the Head of Learning and Development for Hampshire Constabulary and became aware of the lack of co-ordination and strategic governance around the role of the police in delivering safeguarding programmes to school children. I carried out an internal scoping study where it became apparent that police officers or police community support officers, went into schools to deliver safeguarding programmes. There has been insufficient research in this field to determine whether the police have been able to meet their safeguarding remit within the current practice of school-based education programmes.

An examination of how Hampshire Constabulary deliver school-based programmes and the available academic research suggests that the role of the police in delivering school-based programmes requires an evidence-base to take forward a range of recommendations to promote the safeguarding of children. It was clear that the role of the police was blurred on this issue.

My specific interest was to explore what was the role of the police and to establish some clarity and governance around the delivery of the programmes. I recognised that it is key to acknowledge that children are at the heart of two criminal justice pinch points; the brink of offending or being a victim. It seemed logical to me to set the school as the focal part of the study and examine this within a safeguarding framework.

The undertaking of the professional doctorate inspired me to make a difference and offer an evidence base for professionals change **police** current practice. There is an absence of literature on this specific topic. This research project fills the gap in knowledge into the role of the police with school based safeguarding programmes and offers a model for safeguarding professionals to consider. There is a social need and legal requirement to safeguard children; the police are one partner of a number that have a legal responsibility to address this area of work.

Research Aims and Objectives

Having set some context above, the overall aim of the research is to examine the extent of cohesive interagency arrangements between police and education in school safeguarding programmes. As a result of the study this research will develop the implications for future practice. The first objective was to investigate how the police engage with education to deliver school based safeguarding programmes within Hampshire and the Isle of Wight in terms of:

- The lesson plans used by the police to deliver class room based sessions to secondary age level children;
- Evaluations of the programmes;
- The strategic governance of the delivery of the programmes.

In support of this objective a critical analysis was conducted on the review commissioned by the Chief Constable and the Policing and Crime Commissioner of how Hampshire Constabulary delivers school-based programmes. This review was undertaken concurrently with this research.

The second objective was to investigate the role of the Police in the delivery and design of school safeguarding programmes in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight schools. This objective examined the various alternative delivery and design options for school safeguarding programmes to be delivered in Hampshire and Isle of Wight schools.

The third objective was to identify implications for practice, for the Police and Education Department, in relation to the role of the police in school safeguarding programmes in Hampshire and Isle of Wight.

This is a key objective as the research seeks to change professional practice and provide an evidence base for the Police and Education to assist in the delivery and design of school based safeguarding programmes.

In summary the aim and objectives, as outlined below, of this research were to examine school based safeguarding programmes and the role of the police in Hampshire and Isle of Wight within the programmes. The study sets out to make a contribution to knowledge in this area of professional practice, a key objective of the professional doctorate and to make a contribution to academic literature within a victimology context.

Aim: *To critically investigate the role of police and education in school based safeguarding programmes, with a view to exposing the implications for future practice.*

Objective 1: *To critically investigate how the police engage with education to deliver school based safeguarding programmes within Hampshire and the Isle of Wight set within a multi - agency context.*

Objective 2: *To investigate and critically assess the role of the police as an external agency in the delivery and design of school safeguarding programmes in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight schools.*

Objective 3: *To identify implications for practice in relation to the role of the police in school safeguarding programmes in Hampshire and Isle of Wight for Police and Education to consider.*

CHAPTER 2 SAFEGUARDING CHILDREN

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a map to explore the basic concept of safeguarding children and examining how school based education interventions are utilised to meet safeguarding requirements. The chapter addresses the broader role of police in a safeguarding context within the research aim of showing the need to safeguard children. The chapter will provide a background into the safeguarding of children and will then lead on to what it is the school children are being safeguarded from with a conceptual debate as to whether children are more vulnerable as victims of a crime as they are as being offenders of a crime. This is to make the case for the need to examine how children could be safeguarded within the research aims and objective. The chapter will critically examine government strategies used to safeguard children in a school environment. Whilst these strategies are largely designed by government, they do have some academic rigour. The government policies and strategies provide the legal framework to safeguard children.

Having explored the need to safeguard children in a school environment and broadly how this is driven by central government, the chapter makes a comparative analysis of how the US provide school based intervention. This is relevant as it is the closest policy to the UK strategy (Pontin,1996). The rationale for drawing upon the literature of the US is largely because their Drug Abuse Resistance Education (DARE) programme is similar to how the UK have developed school based intervention programmes.

The chapter concludes by narrowing the area of examination into education as an intervention as part of the Public Health Social Health Education (PSHE) agenda. This study follows the age and school definitions as outlined in the Education Act 1996. School is defined as

‘an educational institution which is outside of the further education sector and the higher education sector and is an institute for providing:

- *Primary education*
- *Secondary education*
- *Both Primary and Secondary education*

The study will be focused on secondary education schools where the age categories are between 12 and 16 years of age. Other ages are mentioned within the study as age is defined differently by other professional bodies. The Office of the High Commission for Human Rights 1989 and the Children Act (1989) defines a child as anyone under 18, whilst Section 34 of the Crime and Disorder Act (1998) defines the age of criminal responsibility as a child of 10 years or over in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. Other ages have been used in the study to frame some of the safeguarding considerations relating to children. However, the research questions and conceptual framework is centred on secondary age children in compulsory education.

'School' means all schools whether maintained, non-maintained or independent schools, including academies and free schools, alternative provision academies and pupil referral units (Section 175(2) of the Education Act 2002. This does not include children who elect for home education). On March 2016, the Department for Education and the Minister for Education, the Rt Hon Nicky Morgan MP, released a white paper, the purpose of which was to transform education. It has relevance with this study because the focus is to all schools towards maintained academy maintained status. Academies have no governance from the local authority.

Safeguarding children

The key focus of this research is the safeguarding of children. The term safeguarding has a historical journey over the passage of time in the protection of children. There have been major changes in approach to child protection in England in recent years, which broadened the term from child protection to safeguarding (Gilbert *et al*, 2011). In the 1990's child protection in England was viewed as operating like a big sieve, assessing referrals to the local authority to determine if children met the thresholds for rationed social work intervention (Corby, 2006).

The Children Act 1989 was introduced partly to improve working together across different agencies, strengthen the principle of partnership working and to put more responsibility on parents (Munro, 2011).

The Children Act 1989 set a number of intended outcomes:

- *'Protecting children from significant harm.'*
- *Preventing impairment of children's health and development*
- *Ensuring that children grow up in circumstances consistent with the provision of a safe and effective life*
- *Undertaking that role so as to enable those children to have optimum life chances to move to adulthood successfully.'*

(DCFS, 2010).

The Children Act 1989 followed a number of high profile child deaths and allegations of widespread child abuse in Cleveland (Wate & Boulton, 2015).

The act provided some clear definitions for practitioners. The two main working definitions of child abuse are:

'Children who are defined as being 'in need' under section 17 Children Act (1989) are those whose vulnerability is such that they are unlikely to reach or maintain a satisfactory level of health or development, or their health and development will be significantly impaired without the provision of services, plus those who are disabled'.

The second working definition of child abuse is:

'Local authorities have a duty under Section 47 of the Children Act (1989) to make enquiries when they have reasonable cause to suspect that a child who lives or is found in their area is suffering, or likely to suffer, significant harm, to enable them to decide whether they should take action to safeguard or promote the child's welfare.'

Children Act (1989).

The tragic death of Victoria Climbié, a young child who died in the custody of her carers, in this case an aunt and her boyfriend and were known to social services, led the Children Act 2004. This placed a statutory duty on agencies to make arrangements to safeguard and promote the welfare of children. This radical change shifted the focus of child protection investigation to 'safeguarding' and promoting child welfare to meet the five outcomes for all children set out in the *Every Child Matters* green paper (Radford, 2012) ; (HM Government, 2003). This document was set out as a response to the Victoria Climbié death. The *Every Child Matters* publication (2004) highlighted systemic failings of the services who were charged to protect children and failed to do so, which also put the wheels in motion in terms of delivering safeguarding policy (Every Child Matters, 2004).

The Every Child Matters Report (2004, p. 9) set five objectives:

- Being Healthy
- Staying Safe
- Enjoying and achieving
- Making a positive contribution
- Achieving economic well-being

A significant change to safeguarding children following the Children Act 1989 was the overarching aim towards interagency working. Evidence from the Victoria Climbié death provided a compelling case about the need for services to work together to protect children from harm. The *Working together to Safeguard Children* report (2006), set out the formation of Local Safeguarding Children Boards (LSCB) following the direction given by Section 13 of the Children Act (1989). LSCB are required to monitor the effectiveness of partner agencies and enable organisations to adapt their practices to become more effective in safeguarding children (Munro, 2011). Each board consists of a Senior Manager from different services and professional groups who co-operate to make local arrangements to safeguard children.

The LSCB's role is:

- *'To co – ordinate what is done by each person or body represented on the board for the purposes of safeguarding and promoting the welfare of children in the area of the authority.'*
- *To ensure the effectiveness of what is done by each person or body.*

Children Act (2004) and Davies & Ward, (2012, p.126)

Davies & Ward (2012) argue that multi-disciplined practice amongst practitioners is dependent on appropriate inter agency arrangements for collaborative work being in place. LSCBs should have a threshold policy to ensure a consistent approach to referring and accessing services in operation across their Local Authority area so that all children get the right help at the most appropriate time. Some Local Authorities have a Multi-Agency Safeguarding Hub (MASH) where a referral is made and the decision making process is led by the duty social work manager. However, the decision will draw on the information from other multi agency partners to assist their decision making on further courses of action (Wate & Boulton, 2015). It is important to separate some of the common words associated with protecting children, as some of them are blurred and similar, but the activity required is different. The Charity Commission illustrate the breadth of the terms *'The term safeguarding is broader than 'child protection' and relates to the action commission takes to promote the welfare of children and protect them from harm, safe working is everyone's responsibility'.* (Charity Commission, 2014 p. 1).

The term working together is the central theme to safeguarding policy and strategies, whilst being central to the HM Governments (2013, p.7) definition of safeguarding, '*working together to safeguard children*:

- *Protecting children from maltreatment*
- *Preventing impairment of children's health or development*
- *Ensuring that children grown up in circumstances consistent with the provision of safe and effective care; and*
- *Taking action to enable all children to have the best outcomes.'*

The central government's definition of safeguarding is broadly agreed in the literature and will be relied upon in this study. The 'working together' ethos stems from the Children Act 1989 and the Children's Act 2004 (HM Government, 2010) the guidance was most recently updated in 2009 following the Lord Laming report '*The Protection of Children in England; A progress Report*. The report made 58 recommendations which are reflected or revised in guidance in relation to safeguarding children. (Laming, 2009).

The terms safeguarding and child protection are often used towards a similar outcome, however there is a difference between the two, which has relevance to this to this study. Wate & Boulton (2015, p. 19) notes the separation as:

‘the key difference is that safeguarding is the activity in its widest sense to prevent children suffering any harm and being able to grow up and kept safe, whilst child protection is the action of protecting the individual child who is suffering or who you strongly believe could suffer significant harm unless you act promptly.’

This study is around preventing harm, being proactive as opposed to reacting when a child has been harmed which justifies the strategy to rely on a safeguarding theme and not child protection, and therefore safeguarding through education is the conceptual focus of this work.

HM Government (2013) was clear in their direction, as reflected in guidance, that safeguarding is everyone’s responsibility. For services to be effective each profession and organisation should play their full part, no single profession has a full picture of a child’s needs and that clear collaboration arrangements must exist.

The following section will focus on the 'staying safe' objective within the 'Every Child Matters' report in terms of relevance to the research; school based programmes. Baginsky (2008) argued that there is an increased emphasis on interagency and joint working that allows the voice of the child in the safeguarding of children, and although that is nothing new and remains hard to define, does suggest the largest universal service to safeguard children is the school environment as this is where a child spends a large part of their day. As noted above safeguarding is a broad concept that is set by government guidance and statutory instruments. This study will focus on the part of safeguarding that requires organisations to work together and keep children safe with a particular focus on the Police. The joint working includes a range of statutory members, crucially for this research, both education and police are statutory members of the LCSBs.

The Keeping children safe in Education (DfE, 2015) is broad and includes safeguarding from harm as victims of a crime or neglect/abuse as well as being offenders. Keeping children safe has a strategic dimension and includes organisations as well as individual professionals. This study will now look at the case as to why children need safeguarding, and if so, against what harm. The following section will initially set into context how children are affected by crime, whether as victims or offenders.

The section will examine the organisational failures that have created the need to safeguard children and will show the evidence that there is an absolute need to safeguard children. The study will narrow its scope into the school environment and the role of the police as this is the core site of the study. The section will start with the examination of children as offenders.

Safeguarding children: Young People as Offenders

Ian McPherson, the Chief Constable of Norfolk Police stated '*we must remember that the vast majority of young people will never commit a crime*' (McPherson, 2010).

This quote simply makes the point that not all young people commit crime, and although it does not directly cite evidence for the assertion it neatly illustrates the issue. The debate surrounding children and crime has been researched and explored by academics and other professionals for many years. As with other criminological phenomena, such as the mugging epidemic in the early 1980s (Hall, 1978), myths arguably fuelled the belief that youth and crime are connected. Dilulio (1995 p: 23) coined the term '*super predator*' to describe a new band of offenders – '*kids, that show no respect for human life, no sense for the future – they are stone cold predators.*'

Howell (2003) argued that the most damaging myth propagated was the emergence of a new breed of juvenile crime epidemic in the 1980s, fuelled by US arrest data which reported that juvenile crime was out of control. However, as Howell (2003, p.23) later suggested, this was a 'moral panic' and is factually wrong, as self-reports and victim surveys highlight that the offending range was adults and not young people. Whilst accepting that children do not represent a crime epidemic, it is prudent to take a position that the early years can direct the destiny of many children.

The moral panic concept was developed by Cohen (1972) when explaining the public reaction to disturbances by youths called 'mods and rockers' at a UK seaside resort. Cohen illustrated that the media is the main source for the public's knowledge about deviance and social problems. (Cohen, 1972). Since its inception, the moral panic concept has been applied to a wide range of social problems, including but not limited to, youth gangs, school violence and child abuse. (Bonn, 2015).

Further studies around moral panics reported the media sensation of 'muggings' and the perception that it had been imported from America into the UK, suggesting that crime statistics are manipulated for political and economic purposes; moral panics could be used to inflame an issues to create a public reaction or support (Hall *et al*, (1978). Drawing on the relevance of the moral panic into this study, it can be suggested that youth crime statistics or media reports on youth crime can provide an illusion that crime committed by children is high. The relationship of this concept to this study is to show whether there is a sound evidence base to conclude whether children are vulnerable as offenders or as victims as opposed to perception which may be influenced by the media within the moral panic concept.

Within this study the moral panic literature has relevance. High level offences or risks as presented in the risk and likelihood diagram in 1:1 such as murder and abduction attract the greatest media attention, and the subsequent police response is high, arguably fuelled by the media. Equally the media can illustrate a moral panic with children within low or medium harm risks such as Anti-Social Behaviour or Child Sexual Exploitation, this again attracts a police response to the problem, often stemmed by what the public want.

The diagram at 1:1 highlights this as being a low risk area with a large police resource based on the likelihood of it happening, however media driven moral panics can make the issue surrounding children worse than the evidence presents. The connection with moral panic to this study is how a moral panic can direct police activity, sometimes against the wider need, such as safeguarding programmes.

For example, Farrington (1994, p. 566) argued that '*chronic offenders could be identified with reasonable accuracy at the age of ten*'. This view was later expanded upon by Farrington (2006) who argued that having a convicted parent at the age of ten was the best predictor of becoming criminal as criminal behaviour was transmitted from parents to children, whilst Bowles *et al*, (2005) suggested that the younger an individual is when they start offending, the more likely they are to become prolific offenders.

This evidence was partly supported in Muncie (2004) who promulgated the view that the offending is simply passed down through the generations. Whilst theories that show the pattern of potential criminality in some young people may be valid, they lack the detail behind the statements, and take no account of the young people who had criminal parents and did not go on to offend. A wider and possibly stronger argument is the complex combination of a number of social issues that together raise the risk of offending from a young age, as argued by Goffreson (2001) and also described within the social development model (Hawkins, *et al* 2003). This draws together the various issues whilst arguing that education is the key solution to break the cycle of poverty and offending.

In a modern setting the term 'anti-social behaviour' is often used in studies on youth offending and has been a political instrument used by the New Labour government to demonstrate action with youth offending. The Crime and Disorder Act 1998 introduced by New Labour defined Anti-Social Behaviour (ASB) as a '*manner that caused or was likely to cause harassment, alarm or distress to one or more people not of the same household*' (Blackstones, 2014, p. 167).

Statistics have been used by Muncie (2004) to argue that youth crime can be evidenced through statistical measures. Whilst academic research using strong qualitative methods does make a valuable contribution to the literature surrounding youths as offenders, it is prudent to challenge statistical evidence that make the case of offending rates. However, one of the common issues with statistical available measurements of crime is the reliability of the data. Bowles *et al* (2003) argued that since not all offending is recorded, it is difficult to provide a definite measurement.

In terms of offending '*young people (aged 10 – 17) accounted for 16% of first time entrants to the criminal justice system in 2012/12, whilst adults (18 and over) accounted for 84%.*' (Youth Justice Statistics, 2014, p: 57). Data from the Ministry of Justice (2013) illustrated that youth offending reduced, as well as those entering the court system for the first time and those receiving out of court disposals.

Since 2008/9 there were 54% fewer young people coming into the Youth Justice System, 32% fewer young people (under 18) in custody and 14% fewer re-offences by young people. In addition to the crime statistics of court or criminal justice outcomes, there was a reduction of Penalty Notices for Disorder (PND) by 26% and a reduction of Anti-Social Behaviour Orders (ASBO) by 30% for young people.

The data collection period in the Ministry of Justice (2013) included the disturbances of August 2011. During these disturbances some cities in the UK saw high levels of street riots as a response to the shooting of Mark Duggan in London by the Police (Lewis, 2011). The arrest rate was 27% of all of the people who had been before a court charged with associated offences linked to these disturbances. It is difficult to draw any inferences or judgements on the court appearance statistics as not enough research or data is available to support any conclusions. There is no available information to indicate what the ages of those within the arrest rate of 27% is, but either way it does go against the national trend of arrest reduction. A number of factors were at play during the disturbances, which represented a unique set of circumstances of criminal behaviour, therefore making any comment or conclusion open to challenge.

Notwithstanding the disturbances of August 2011, the overall trend in youth offending is declining, however, this is in line with national crime recording statistics where an overall decline of recorded crime by 7% was recorded (CSEW, 2013). An inference can be made here that shows a connection between a reduction in youth crime and all crime. As with Home Office statistics there are validity issues with the survey method of data reliance, however, Phillips and Chamberlain (2006, p. 27) defended Home Office statistics and argued that 95% of the responses are true.

Safeguarding Children: Young People as Victims

A constantly changing society brings with it challenges to those who are responsible for keeping communities safe. Cultural and technological advances may expose young people to a greater risk to technology enabled crimes, such as cyber bullying, sexting and harassment. Whilst it is easy to be alarmed by the media rhetoric which portrays young people primarily as offenders, a consideration of their vulnerability may determine whether they are at greater risk of being, victims rather than offenders.

Following the cross party review of Home Office crime statistics (the Smith Review) by Professor Adrian Smith as directed by the then Home Secretary Charles Clarke in 2006, it was recommended that the Home Office commission an independent methodological study to examine the feasibility of covering children (under 16) as part of the British Crime Survey (BCS). This would obtain nationally representative estimates of crimes against this group (Fitzpatrick, *et al* (2013). The review did highlight some methodological concerns; such as a child's cognitive limitations (Borgers, 2000) and their ability to recall events (Smith, Cowie and Blades, 2003). To overcome the issues raised the questions were adapted to account for these limitations to achieve an outcome.

Millard and Flatley (2010, p. 10) confirmed in the British Crime Survey '*that children are generally at higher risk of victimisation than adults*'. This was an experimental survey of children aged between 10 and 15 in 2009. Whilst Millard and Flatley reported that there was an increase in children who were victims of various crimes, it is unclear what this is compared with, as this was the first experimental survey of children. Millard and Flatley (2010) did report that the findings cannot be compared to adults as the data and question classifications are different.

Hoare (2011, p. 43) reported that '*1% of children aged 13 – 15 had carried a knife for their own protection whilst 13% of the same age category stated that they knew someone who carried a knife*', in England and Wales. In the same report, Hoare (2011) reported on levels 22 % of bullying of children aged between 10 and 15, and Cyber bullying, arguably a new threat facing young people, was reported to affect 27% of the children who had been bullied.

A MORI youth survey found that 51% of young people aged between 11 - 16 had been the victim of crime or bullying in the 12 months before the interview (Phillips, 2009). Another sample was presented in the Howard League (2002) that surveyed an unspecified number of 11 – 15 years where only 4% felt they had never been a victim.

The OCJS (2006) commented that 10 – 15 year olds were more likely to be the victims of personal crime than 16 – 24 year olds, whilst little is known about the full extent of child victimisation and its impact, Evans (2011, p. 100) argued enough is known to conclude that

‘child victimisation is in the most marginalised and impoverished areas. Winstone and Pakes (2005, p. 1) argued that ‘youth is the most crimeogenic age and that youths are the most common victims, in particular young males.’

This view was shared in Hayden, Williamson and Webber (2007) who went on to argue that schools are the place that many young people see as the only community facility in which they spend a considerable amount of time, suggesting that the schools in areas of high social deprivation are key areas to target in order to prevent crime. Although Hayden, Williamson and Webber do not suggest young people are any more likely to be a victim of crime than adults, what they are suggesting is that schools in deprived areas which could be targeted to prevent people from being both offenders and victims of crime and anti-social behaviour.

This represents some of the statistical findings arguing that children are vulnerable as victims of recorded crime as outlined in the British Crime Survey and other non- government research sites. However, this represents only part of the picture that highlights the risks to children.

A measure of the issues that children represent, could be represented by the number of child protection referrals made by police and social services. In a study comparing safeguarding referrals between England, Australia Norway and the US, England had around a 10% increase of referrals between 2009 and 2010, which equated to 50 per 1,000 children, and was the highest in the comparator countries (Munro and Manful, 2010).

The number of children on the Child Protection Register increased substantially between 2005 (29,500) to 38,440 in 2010. Some caution should be exercised with safeguarding statistics, in particular with comparisons over time, as high profile cases may have some reporting impact, such as Baby P (Peter Connolly) who died in the hands of his parents and was subject to serious case review (SCR, 2009) and the Saville inquiry.

Drawing upon the safeguarding literature to contextualise a local Hampshire perspective, there was a serious case review that led to the closure of Stanbridge Earls School. This highlights the risks children face from a safeguarding perspective in Hampshire. Stanbridge Earls School was school operating in the Independent sector, paid for by the parents/guardians or their employers (Armed Forces) of the children who attend and have learning needs.

A report was made by a Special Educational Needs and Disability First Tier Tribunal (SENDIST) in January 2013, whose role is to consider appeals against decisions made by local authorities regarding education provisions for children with special needs, following a report of sexual activity between pupils, some of which were reported as serious crimes to the police. The report stated *'the judgement specifically stated that the school did not take all reasonable steps to keep child F safe'* (CSR, 2015, p. 8) and extended to feedback from Ofsted who reported *'widespread problems with safeguarding arrangements at the school'* (CSR, 2015, p. 9). The review concluded that *'The school as an organisation, was not sufficiently alert to its safeguarding responsibilities.'* (CSR, 2015 p: 52).

This simply highlights the constant risks children are exposed to whether they are offenders or victims and overarching requirement of the school, in this case, but local authority and the statutory members of the children safeguarding boards who are responsible to ensure children are safe.

There have been other significant cases that make an argument to safeguard children, as set out under the Children Act 1989 and 2004. Outside of the tragic events of Victoria Climbié, who died in the care of relatives and has been subject to Government led public Inquiry. This culminated in the 'Every Child Matters' (2004) report led by Lord Laming, there is Child Sexual Exploitation (CSE) which has become the subject of a number of serious case reviews and changes in local authority activity and subject to government scrutiny.

The term 'child sexual exploitation' does not refer to a specific action or a particular criminal offence; rather it is a generic term applied to a variety of behaviours and offences. These activities range from lowest level of in the CSE definition (non- contact incitement to commit indecent acts, either alone or with another person or other people) to the highest level (multiple rapes) (HMIC, 2013).

The government, the Office of the Children's Commissioner and the Police Forces of England and Wales all adopt the same working definition of CSE:

'Sexual exploitation of children and young people under 18 involves exploitive situations, contexts and relationships where young people (or a third person or persons) receive 'something' (e.g. food, accommodation, drugs, alcohol, cigarettes, affection, gifts, money) as a result of performing, and/or others performing on them, sexual activities.

Child sexual exploitation can occur through the use of technology without the child's immediate recognition; for example, the persuasion to post sexual images on the internet/mobile phone with immediate payment or gain. In all cases, those exploiting the child/young person have power over them by virtue of their age, gender, intellect, physical strength and/or economic or other resources.

Violence, coercion and intimidation are common, involvement in exploitative relationships being characterised in the main by the child or young person's limited availability of choice resulting from their social/economic and/or emotional vulnerability' (DfE, 2009).

This activity around CSE was a result of two high profile cases (Rotherham and Oxfordshire) where young girls were sexually exploited by a number of males over a number of years. In August 2013, the Police and Crime Commissioner (PCC) for South Yorkshire Police, who covered Rotherham, commissioned Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary (HMIC) to provide an independent assessment of the effectiveness and resilience of the current arrangements in place within South Yorkshire Police to protect children from CSE and make recommendations for improvement.

The reason for including CSE within the body of the evidence is to show the changing face of crime, new threats that face children and the holistic partnership response to safeguard children from a variety of risks. The definition is modern, it encompasses the myriad of the risks children are exposed to in a modern society and crucially, in terms of subject content, is relevant and connected to safeguarding education programmes delivered in schools.

Symbiotic to the theme of a changing society is the growth in use of technology amongst young people. With this comes greater exposure of risk and a new threat of cyber bullying, '*an old problem in a new guise*' (Campbell, 2005 p: 68). Historically bullying was not a problem that needed any significant police intervention, but it has now been accepted as a fundamental and normal part of childhood (Campbell, 2005). This is a complex issue, however, the point around this topic is to highlight how the advancement of technology has increased the level of risk of harm to young people together with modern attitudes to bullying and its connection to wider emotional difficulties with young people.

Whilst there a number of definitions on bullying and cyber bullying, they are all very similar but this definition provided by Smith, (2004 p:104), helpful in its clarity and simplicity, '*An aggressive, intentional act carried out by a group or individual using electronic forums to contact repeatedly over time against a victim who cannot easily defend themselves*'.

Whilst the threats to children can be endless, and has been shown in this evidence, the threat of radicalisation from terrorism is another emerging threat to young people and topical in Hampshire and Isle of Wight. In Portsmouth there were a small number of local residents who left the UK to fight in Syria having been educated in the United Kingdom (UK), (Townsend, 2014). This threat was also seen by the DfE who released the '*The Prevent Duty: Departmental advice to schools and childcare providers*' which provides guidance to identify, assess and signpost schools if they feel a child is being radicalised in their school (DfE, 2015).

This threat of harm to young people in a modern setting was introduced to this evidence with the objective to demonstrate that children need safeguarding not only from adults or physical harm, but also from themselves and in an electronic format; this simply represents a change in society and safeguarding plans must keep up with this risk.

Social Crime Prevention:

Whilst the study of crime prevention is broad, this study is focused on how social interventions play a key role in the prevention of crime, in particular from an early year's perspective. The overarching research aim of the study is the safeguarding of children in a school context. An examination of how the crime prevention theory links into a theoretical frame work is set within a social crime prevention model. This section brings the knowledge of social prevention into the findings of the study.

Social crime prevention considers the causes of criminality within social formations and intervenes in a social world to divert individuals from offending. Social crime prevention is more aligned to social policy interventions in schools, housing and services to children. This is quite different to other crime prevention strategies such as situational crime prevention, which Hughes (1998) places into a political ideological context of modifying the environment and increasing the risk of detection. Situational crime prevention is very tangible such as CCTV or increased street lighting (Clarke, 1995) whilst social crime prevention is less obvious within a high crime environment or hot spot.

In early discussions, social crime prevention was underpinned by control theory (Hirschi, 1969) that attempted to explain why people conform to social expectations and to lesser extent the work of Merton (1957) who promoted the strain theory of a disjoint between what people aspired to have against the lack of opportunities to achieve the goal. However, in a modern setting, social crime prevention concentrates on youth offending and their poor socialising that leads young people to become involved in crime (Evans, 2011).

Whilst social crime prevention remains aligned to the focus of this research by concentrating on young people and schools as an intervention, this research has also noted that young people are more likely to be victims of crime as opposed to offenders, therefore broadening its parameters of success to include young people not necessarily exposed to the risk of offending, but giving them options to prevent themselves being victims of crime.

Police officers or staff going into schools to deliver 'safe' messages to children fits into the broader sense of social crime prevention, as an intervention strategy. Goffredson (2002) argued that schools have great potential as a locus for crime prevention suggesting the school is an ideal setting for interventions within a social crime prevention strategy.

In terms of an academic theoretical model to support the concept of preventing crime, this research will rely and contribute to the Rational Choice Theory, which Coleman and Moynihan (1996) argue fills the gap of situational crime prevention by looking at the way offenders make decisions in particular situations. Mitzal (1996, p. 77) described Rational Choice Theory as

‘elegance and simplicity of its model of motivation, namely the rational choices made by individual actors’.

The aspiration of the school based programmes is to give young people healthy choices, which include, removing themselves from situations of potential harm, whether as an offender or a potential victim. The programmes are designed to address issues or topics that affect the safeguarding of young people by giving them the knowledge of consequences of action or in-action, this in turn, can morph into the simplistic view of the Rational Choice Theory, where informed decisions are made by young people.

Crawford (1998) argued that social crime measures have remained as the ‘poor man’ within the crime prevention community as it is difficult to measure outcomes and remains largely unproven, a point supported in Cornish and Clarke (1986). This issue cannot be helped with the coalition government’s CSR (2010) that introduced considerable reduction in public spending and impeded the ability to deliver on an aspect of crime prevention for which the evidence base (of success) is harder to access.

The chapter has shown some quantitative evidence in the British Crime Survey, MORI youth survey and the Howard League together with limited academic research that has indicated youth offending, in England and Wales, has reduced over a number of successive years whilst children have become more vulnerable as victims of crime. This chapter has critically examined government reports and legislation and how they link into the body of study with relevance to safeguarding. Children are exposed to a number of threats such as CSE, cyber bullying and violence in the home, together with other high profile child cases that have attracted a government response and legislation. Official statistics are collected by government funded departments such as the Ministry of Justice, whereas statistics from surveys are collected through research by authors representing or illustrating a narrow focus. The chapter has linked this to the school as a place where a child spends a lot of their time and has an influence on their thinking. This chapter has shown there is a need to safeguard children, making the aims of the research necessary; showing a need to research this topic from a victimology perspective.

The objective of this study is not to be tempted to look further into the evidence of showing youth as victims, but rather to support the original conceptual framework of safeguarding children; suggesting that safeguarding, through school-based programmes remains the focus of this research.

Having broadly examined the issue of safeguarding children as offenders and victims of crime, this study will explore how children are protected from crime within a safeguarding capacity and will identify the different ways professionals approach this issue, with particular reference to school-based programmes within the conceptual framework.

CHAPTER 3

Safeguarding Children: school-based programmes

This chapter examines school based programmes as an intervention that reduces the risk of children being victims and offenders of harm. This chapter addresses the objective of the research around school based programmes to safeguard children from a broad national and international perspective. This evidence contributes to the overall definition of the role of the police in safeguarding programmes as set out in the objectives of the study. The chapter will start by examining UK school based initiatives such as the Safer Schools Partnership and how the Welsh assembly approached this issue. There was a comparative look at the US DARE model and a look at how the US used colleges as an intervention to reduce rapes on a university campus. The chapter finally examined the broad theoretical concepts of learning. This is a vast subject, the chapter only presented a broad narrative that was relevant to the research study, focusing on learning styles and class room deliveries. This chapter will start with the government context followed by the Safer Schools Partnership.

There has been some debate regarding prevention of youth crime, with some political influence; most notably by New Labour under Tony Blair's leadership, who coined the slogan *'Tough on crime and tough on the causes of crime'* (Muncie, 1994 p.229). The theme of cutting crime was echoed by the coalition Home Secretary, Theresa May when addressing the Association of Chief Police Officers *'your job is nothing more, and nothing less than to cut crime'* (May, 2010). The notion that the police should be held to account in the reduction of crime goes back to the Peelian Principals set in 1829 *'to prevent crime and disorder, an alternative to their repression by military force and severity of legal punishment'* (Home Office, p. 1 2012).

Whilst there are statutory partners required to safeguard children, it is clear for the majority of children, that the school is a place where children spend a significant amount of their day, and it follows the school should be a primary consideration as a site to keep them safe.

'Everyone who comes into contact with children and their families has a role to play in safeguarding children. School and college staff are particularly important as they are in a position to identify concerns early and provide help for children, to prevent concerns from escalating'. (DfE, 2015 p. 6).

Statutory guidance around the legal duties that schools are set out in '*Working Together to Safeguard Children 2015*', whereas '*Keeping Children Safe in Education 2015*' (DfE, 2015) sets out a framework as to what schools and colleges '*should*' do which includes working with social care, the police, health services and other services to promote the welfare of children and protect them from harm.

Alongside this the '*Teachers Standard 2012*' states that '*teachers, including head teachers, should safeguard children's wellbeing and maintain public trust in the teaching profession*' (DfE, 2015 p. 6). The point made here is the use of the term '*should*'. The guidance and standards make a clear distinction between '*must*' and '*should*', The safeguarding guidance is clear in the use of the term *should* there is a suggestion that schools and colleges are guided to identify areas of neglect, harm and other safeguarding triggers and then take appropriate action as they deem fit. This differs from the compulsory tone of *must*, which suggests carries a greater layer of accountability and urgency.

This is raised as a critical observation to show the difference in language between police and safeguarding boards as opposed to the language used by Department of Education, where the direction is very much to *ensure* (Children Act, 2004).

There is little to doubt that reducing crime is a key component in any policing plan. The discussion will now focus on the numerous strategies used to reduce crime and potential harm inflicted upon children.

As noted earlier, a sensible focus for this study is the school environment. The study argues that schools are a focal point for children as victims of crime and is a pivotal location having so many young people together for the majority of a day, whilst noting that this will not address children who are home educated or out of mainstream education.

There have traditionally been very few strategies to safeguard children within a school environment. The New Labour government under Tony Blair, were the first to really push and invest in an agenda that connected youth offending or crime within the schools, a point made in Hayden, Williamson and Webber (2007 p:2) '*Schools and more broadly, education, have been central to the New Labour government central policy*'. Winstone and Pakes (2005) argued schools have a role to play in all levels of crime prevention; individual, situational and structural.

The Crime and Disorder Act (1998) was the first piece of legislation that addressed preventing of offending by young people and placed a statutory duty on the police, local authority, health and probation services to work together to reduce the problems of crime and disorder in their area of professional business (Muncie, 2004, p: 230). The most recent government strategy, and closely aligned to this research, is the Safer Schools Partnership (SSP). Although broadly delivered in different ways, the overall stated objectives are clear and reflect government policy. The Welsh assembly is a good example of how this strategy is delivered in local schools and, along with the SSP will be discussed in some depth later in this study. The study will initially examine the SSP, followed by the All Wales School Liaison Core Programme (AWLSCP) and other government policy documents that focus on the safeguarding of children with an emphasis on the school setting. The key focus however, will be around school-based safeguarding programmes.

Safer Schools Partnerships

The New Labour government introduced the Safer Schools Partnerships (SSP) that funded the placement of Police Officers in schools of high crime areas in 2002 (Hayes & Ball, 2008). The SSP was formally introduced in March 2006 however it was launched as a pilot initiative in September 2002 (Ministry of Justice, 2011). The programme had five stated objectives:

- Reduce Victimisation and Crime
- Work with schools and behaviour
- Identify and work with children at risk

- Ensure full time education of young people
- Create and maintain a safe environment

An examination of these objectives does reflect the belief that children are at risk of being victims of crime as noted by the first and last objective. This research focuses on the safeguarding issue as opposed to the other and wider objectives set by the SSP. Funding for the SSP pilot ceased in 2005 with the Department For Education (DfE) mainstreaming the funding (Burgess, 2006). There is little research on the funding of the partnerships, or any other police or education programmes. The government literature does not delineate who is responsible for the funding, rather it suggests they allow the police and education to reach agreement by mutual arrangement. Such a funding policy was arguably suitable under the Labour government, but in more austere times under the Coalition government, it became more contentious issue.

The police aligned the government school agenda to their policy and produced a strategy that focused on young people and crime. The strategy was set by the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO), who are the senior ranking members of the Police service. The ACPO strategy '*never too late, never too early* (2003) had three stated outcomes (ACPO, 2003 P. 20):

- To build and maintain positive relationships between the police and young people
- Provide children and their parents with the best information to enable young people to avoid crime and disorder
- Helping those children and young people greatest at risk from entering into ASB and criminality

A critical analysis of the strategy supports the view that the outcomes are concise and serve to meet the needs of the police, as opposed to any joint working with the education sector as partners. Chief Officers would arguably support a plan that reduces crime and disorder, but it is unclear whether education would share the same outcomes. Nonetheless, the outcomes of the ACPO are clear, linked to safeguarding and are difficult to argue against the direction of the intended outcome.

The Every Child Matters report (2004) cited earlier, presented a number of outcomes that potentially show commonality with the 'Staying Safe' theme within the SSP and youth crime agenda. The term is broad and covers a multitude of safeguarding related issues, however the crucial point is that it is associated with education, as part of the Personal, Social, Health Education (PSHE) school subject matters.

The government directed that agencies, including police and education, work together to achieve the stated outcomes. The Every Child Matters (2004) recommendations are less police centric than the ACPO (2003) outcomes, suggesting this could be a positive step forward in terms of interagency working.

The literature evidence on the SSP, set out to look at current evaluations of the partnership programme and how they are delivered in the United Kingdom. As with all policies that are delivered in communities to improve people's lives, it is essential that a scholarly review or evaluation is made to show the extent to which they have worked, and to also learn the lessons which made them successful. There are a number of variations of the SSP which reflect the levels which it is interpreted, how it is funded, Chief Officer 'buy in' and local agreements between the police and local education authorities. The difference between some of the delivery models is quite stark.

The All Wales School Liaison Core Programme (AWSLCP)

A comprehensive example of the Safer Schools programme was achieved in Wales with the full support of the Welsh Assembly. The programme covered 98% of Welsh schools and a high investment of 87 Police Constables. The All Wales School Liaison Core Programme (AWSLCP) had different outcomes to the SSP in the United Kingdom and they had a broad range of aims (Roberts, 2006):

- *'Work towards achieving a reduction in crime and disorder in the young of our communities through the medium of education.*
- *Promote the principles of positive citizenship in schools and their wider communities.'*

The key difference between the AWSLCP and the SSP was the focus on education and the way in which the programme was delivered. A scholarly evaluation of the programme was completed between December 2008 and December 2010 (Stead *et al*, 2011). The methodology used to evaluate the programme lacked depth and was conceded by the authors as *'methodology used for internal evaluation and needs further development'* (Stead *et al*, 2011 p. 4). Whilst clearly disappointing, it can nonetheless afford a research opportunity, as the AWSLCP sits very closely to this research project and will be debated in the discussion chapter of this study. Whilst Hampshire and Isle of Wight are the location where the study is being undertaken, the AWSLCP is a useful academic benchmark as a joint police and government initiative. A key point to discuss is who is best placed to deliver the education programmes?

The AWSLCP permitted Police Officers to deliver the education, on the basis that they achieved the minimum training qualification of a level four of the Foundation Degree in Education. The delivery of the programmes was jointly coordinated between the Personal and Social Education (PSE) co-ordinator and the Police Officer.

The AWSLCP did promote internal monitoring of the programme (Stead *et al*, 2011) and the model of Knowledge, Understanding, Skills, Attitudes and Behaviour (KUSAB) was followed as an indicator of any changes in learners knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes and behaviour (Stead, *et al* 2011).

The outcome of the evaluation completed by Stead *et al* (2011, p.19), subject to the flaws in the methodology, highlighted the following outcomes:

1. *'The AWSLCP was held in high regard, seen as valuable and important by almost all those interviewed.'*
2. *There was overwhelming support for the continuation of the programme.*
3. *Long term and close relationships developed between the children and police officer.*
4. *Content and lessons did differ between schools.*
5. *There was a widespread view that the programme added value by providing pupils with the knowledge, awareness and understanding that they can keep themselves safe and out of trouble.*
6. *The programme had changed both behaviour and attitudes towards substance misuse and anti-social behaviour, and offered qualitative evidence that included 'I behave better on the streets', 'I don't spray paint anymore' and 'I don't get drunk every week end like I used to'.*

7. *There were instances when the teaching staff reluctantly had to deliver PSE programmes when their timetable was light.*
8. *Some tension with the police officers who had to complete the frontline duties whilst the AWSLCP police officers were in the school.'*

The evaluation did provide a range of strengths and weaknesses, but most were captured in the summary of the findings cited above. On examination of the findings there are two points that require further discussion:

1. *'There was a widespread view that the programme added value by providing pupils with the knowledge, awareness and understanding that they can keep themselves safe and out of trouble.*
2. *The programme had changed both behaviour and attitudes towards substance misuse and anti-social behaviour.'*

On critical reflection of the two outcomes from the evaluation by Stead *et al* 2011, the first point is connected to the staying safe agenda as it has set out to achieve the learning outcomes of knowledge, awareness and understanding. The KUSAB model is a popular education model used to show that pupils have learned something from a lesson (Lewin, 1953). All three points can be demonstrated by a taxonomy which can be demonstrated through an exam, knowledge test or other class room based activity that can show the understanding part.

This outcome will feature later in this research as the knowledge and awareness are the common evaluation success criteria for police learning.

The second outcome is not so easy:

The second point for discussion suggests the evaluation did provide further commentary on this statement conceding that the data contradicted evidence from larger studies that school based interventions have little impact in these areas. It is difficult to prove that attitudes and behaviour had changed and even harder to align any changes directly to the input of a school based intervention programme. Whilst accepting it is difficult to evidentially show any changes in behaviour and attitudes without a longitudinal study, there is some concern around this lack of evidence.

The AWSLCP represented a close example of this study. There are other models of the SSP in the United Kingdom that were delivered differently to the Welsh model. (Bhabra, Hill and Ghate, 2004 p. 1) state the aims of the SSP in the United Kingdom were:

- *'To provide a safe and secure school community, thereby enhancing the learning environment'.*
- *'To reduce the prevalence of crime and victimisation among young people'.*
- *'To ensure that young people remain in education, actively learning and achieving their full potential'.*
- *'To deliver a partnership to engage young people, challenge unacceptable behaviour, and develop respect for themselves and their community'.*

The delivery model was designed for police officers, known as a 'Behaviour and Education Support Team' (BEST), who were either employed full time with complete multi agency support in secondary schools and primary feeder schools with the greatest need in areas of high crime and depravation, or part time officers in schools with a lesser need.

The focus of the SSP programme was around anti-social behaviour, truancy and reducing the risk of criminal behaviour (Bhabra, Hill and Ghate, 2004). Further examination of the aims does highlight some connection to the ACPO guidance (2007), Every Child Matters (2004) and the AWLCSP, however there were also some key differences. The closest link to the other aims is the desire to reduce crime and victimisation and keeping safe, this is in keeping with the discussion on youth and crime.

Like the AWLSCP the SSP was also subject to academic evaluations designed for the government and professionals involved with young people and crime. Effesen (2011) commented that any evaluation of crime prevention is not performed under static conditions, as reflected in the evaluations of the AWLSCP and the SSP. Bhabra, Hill and Ghate (2004) evaluated the SSP in the UK and reported they evaluated the purest model. Bhabra, Hill and Ghate (2004) commented that the policy for the SSP never articulated the role of the police, it did not have a plan as to how the police will spend their time, whether for law enforcement or prevention.

The SSP struggled to deal with the ad hoc arrangements of the police in schools and they had real difficulty in measuring success as there was no base to compare similar schools. The methodology used for the evaluation was a standard quasi – experiment design of pre-test/post-test non-equivalent groups. It compared the evolution of outcomes for the intervention schools from a baseline prior to the intervention, until after the intervention, with the change outcomes observed in a chosen group of comparison schools over the same interval. The method appears reasonable as some comparison should be made and a random control trial (RCT) would not be possible as the participating partnerships deliver the programme differently, hence the non-equivalent sample.

The evaluation or measure of success, was limited and made a claim that is open to an evidential challenge. The evaluation reflected that truancy had reduced and academic achievement had improved. There is little evidence to show why or how this has been achieved, other than claiming that it is due to the school being in the SSP and the comparator school was not. The final statement in the evaluation was that the SSP participating schools ‘*saw a reduction in offending*’ (p. 154). This was not proved in the evaluation, but is attributed to its evaluation outcome. This statement is open to challenge as there is no reliable evidence to prove this point.

Despite the validity issues that surround the evaluations it is clear that the SSP does offer some value to the children. Improving truancy and academic grades has to be a good thing, but in terms of 'who profits' it seems education gains more than the police. Whilst reducing crime could be a positive consequence of this, it has not been proved to be the case. Therefore, it is sensible to suggest the focus as being purely a method to safeguard children

Police Culture

Whilst this research has used the term 'police' in its broadest sense this includes the wider policing family, such as Police Support and Community Officers (PCSO) and police staff (non- warranted staff and/or volunteers). The research has shown that the role of the external speaker is key, this relates to the Police in this research. If the research is suggesting the Police are evidentially best placed to deliver school based programmes or have a wider role in the school, it is prudent to consider the wider police culture as an organisation and how, organisationally and culturally, officers going into less front line duties are perceived by their peers.

Waddington and Wright (2010) argue that police culture is based on values and beliefs with working practices to help explain their actions. Officers view their primary role as 'crime fighters' (Holdaway and Parker, 1998, p.44) and Loftus (2009, p.5). The vision of the police officer is to arrest drug dealers and burglars, driving at high speed (Loftus, 2009).

There is evidence that officers take control of different situations in an authoritative style, but often show superiority over the general public (Paoline, et al, 2000, p.578).

Morris and Heal (1981) suggest helping the public is an accurate description of the role of the police, whereas Loader, (1997) argues that much of their activities are routine and there is a discrepancy between the actual duty and what the officer sees as their role which Morash and Greene, (1986, p.248) have described as “romantic notions”.

Whilst the research on police culture does describe the cultural role of the police as being geared towards action, catching criminals and machismo, the work in schools is not as like this and much more as described in Loader as “routine”.. Clearly not every police officer possess the personal qualities to go into a school and interact with children, however whilst some officers may not see this as a core role of the police officer, policing in a modern challenging context does require broader qualities than what front line policing requires.

Education as an Intervention

A feature set out in the SSP and the AWCLP is the delivery of safeguarding education programmes in a school setting. The discussion will now take a wider look at what exists in English and Welsh schools as a site for preventing crime and ultimately safeguarding children. Education interventions in schools are joint ventures between education and other professionals such as police, fire or health and are designed to deal with social issues and divert young people from crime or anti-social behaviour. Whilst the SSP offer an array of schemes for young people and the police, interventions are an international tactic that are focused on the reduction of offending

Bowles, Reyes and Pradiptyo (2005) argue that interventions are designed to prevent or reduce problem behaviour and are based on early studies that show a connection between youth, crime and anti-social behaviour, a view shared in research conducted by Coffen (1998) and concluded *'early intervention, particularly if it can postpone the onset of offending, may have a substantial value in relation to reducing both offending and social exclusion.'*

Both Bhabra, Hill and Ghate, (2004) and Bowles, Reyes and Pradiptyo (2005) commented that the school based interventions in the United States of America (USA) were largely educational and popular. The comparison with the US was due to their DARE programme being similar in design to the UK strategy. The more popular US based intervention programmes are (Bhabra, Hill and Ghate, 2004):

- PATHE: Positive Action through Holistic Education.
- STATUS: Student training through urban strategies.
- GBG: Good Behaviour Game.
- COPS: Community Oriented Policing Service.

These programmes were evaluated and were investigated using several Randomised Control Trials with largely inconclusive results as to their effectiveness. Bowles, Reyes and Pradiptyo, (2005) identified a number of projects that were school education based interventions:

- Perry Pre School Project, based in high risk areas up to 27 years of age, known as 'High Scope'.
- Syracuse FDRP.
- North Carolina – Abercedarian Project.

All of the programmes and projects were set up with the objective of reducing or preventing crime, however Clarke and Campbell (1998) found that even though the Abercedarian project had improved cognitive performance, it had no impact on youth and crime. This point will be reviewed in context for the larger US intervention education programmes later in the study. Although largely US based, the thinking behind the programmes are similar to the vision of the Labour government who were keen to stem offending at an early age and championed schools as a route to achieve their overarching objectives (Stephenson, 2007). Schools, and more broadly, education have been central to the New Labour government policy (Hayden, Williamson and Webber, 2007). School based interventions seem a logical step to address youth and crime or anti-social behaviour, however there is little conclusive evidence that they work, notwithstanding the lack of evidence, they remain popular.

Education as a form of intervention may appear contradictory, with some academic research suggesting the two follow different objectives and other academics place the two firmly together. It could be suggested that the Labour Government took the position that the two are joined, and arguably ACPO and the Department for Education agree, hence the joint investment and policy direction. Similar to other criminal justice projects that affect keeping people safe or show a reduction in crime, there has to be evidence to show that the intervention works. Whilst the large scale academic evaluation of the SSP by Bhabra, Hill and Ghate, (2004) highlighted some positive issues, in particular with the police/pupil relationship, truancy and an improvement in academic grades, they concede some short comings in the conclusions largely due to a limited methodology.

A similar argument can be made with the AWLSCP evaluation by (Stead *et al*, 2011) which was unable to confirm the education delivered in the schools made any difference in the reduction of crime or the local crime levels in the areas of the project. This leaves an interesting dilemma; if there is no real valid evidence to show any difference in the UK with police intervention programmes, it is reasonable to ask 'why do they continue?' This is a key point as the safeguarding school based programmes in this study are the main focus, any attempt to understand their specific value is helpful to this research. An examination of American models may help to answer this. The US government invested in the Drug Abuse Resistance Education programme (DARE), a school- based intervention programme delivered throughout the US by Police Officers working in education establishments.

The purpose of investigating the DARE programme in some depth is to compare a strategy to safeguard children set in a similar way to the SSP, with a key focus on whether it achieved its objectives against the US Federal investment.

DARE: The US intervention project

The US federal government during the Bush administration provided funding for schools to add drug education programmes to their curriculum, the programmes were branded as the DARE (Drug Abuse Resistance Education) Programme and has become the largest and best known school based drug education programme in the US with 50 states comprising of 20 million students participating (Wysong, Aniskiewicz and Wright, 1994). By comparison to the US the SSP was provided with funds to place police officers in high crime area schools (Hayes and Ball, 2008) but the funding ceased in 2005 with the Department for Education (DfE) mainstreaming the SPP (Burgess, 2006). Despite the UK government Youth Crime Action Plan, that encouraged the setting up of SSP and described them as an important part of Neighbourhood policing (Lamont, MacCleod and Wilkin, 2011) there is no evidence of any additional funds being made available to the police or education for this arrangement, which appears largely at odds with the financial commitment by the US federal government.

The structure of the DARE programme comprised of one full time qualified Police Officer working with 10 elementary schools, with a focus on providing class room based activities that addressed the misuse of drugs, alcohol and tobacco (Pontin, 1996). All of the sessions are completed in the daytime and include role play, discussions and question and answer sessions (Wysong, Aniskiewicz and Wright, 1994).

DARE relied on the police working in the classroom with the children, an approach that has the benefit of improving the attitude of young people toward the police, developing them into police friendly citizens, however, whilst this is beneficial for the police, it is most likely not reaching the objectives of the DARE project (Keene and Williams, 1996). There is also a substantial cost for the DARE programme, '*estimated at \$700 million*' (Wysong, Aniskiewicz and Wright, 1994 P; 448).

There are some clear similarities between the US model and what is being delivered in the UK through the SSP and the AWLSCP. The AWLSCP investment appears to be modelled on the DARE programme, as it includes the full time allocation of Police Officers in schools with a strong focus on education and integration of the police into the participating environment. In contrast the clear difference between the DARE programme, is the AWLSCP does not have the themed subjects featured in the DARE programme.

On critical reflection of the AWLSCP, I would argue it can achieve its aims under the broad scope of 'reducing crime and protecting children' (Roberts, 2006) which is almost a 'capture all' remit, whereas the DARE programme is more narrow and only captures drugs, tobacco and alcohol. Both the DARE and the AWLSCP are widely different from the SSP. The SSP does not allocate an Officer into the school, but rather shares the resource amongst the schools who have opted for the SSP which is located in an area of need. The definition of success or deployment of the Officers in the schools is less clear, there is little mention or focus on the education element, but more a presence in the school and point of contact should issues arise. To be clear, the SSP includes some education but the evaluations and literature do not explain what or how the education programmes are delivered.

The Evaluations of DARE

The DARE project is politically popular, it featured in the Bush administration and had a day named after the project 'national DARE day 10 September 1992' (Wysong, Aniskiewicz and Wright, 1994 p: 448). However, despite the popularity studies actually show that there is no evidence of impact or effectiveness.

The scholarly review of the DARE project indicates there are both positives and negatives of the programme. Whilst some of the evaluations of the programme are not scientifically based they do offer some evidence as to why the US government persists with the programme on such a large scale.

Ringwalt, Greene, Ennett and Iachan (1994) argued that the main strength for DARE is the active involvement of the individuals who work on DARE programmes, that in summary, improved the relationships between the police and children that would not normally develop (Birkland, Murphy, Graham and Weiss, 2005). The programme is also aimed at reaching the head of the family, but struggles in cases where there is no head of the family or house, however the authors reported that DARE *'is the example of a collaborative approach between the police and the schools'* (Ringwalt *et al* 1994, p: 103). The study by Ringwalt (*et al*, 1994) did find consistent results in the field of the study, but it also conceded that it was unable to find a treatment group to complete the experiment.

Further qualitative evaluations of the DARE programme concluded that the early evaluations showed that it was popular and enhanced anti-drug attitudes and knowledge while strengthening these social skills and behaviours relevant to resisting drugs (Palumbo and Ferguson, 1995) whereas DeJong (1997) found that there is no one answer to the question of whether DARE is a success.

Wysong and Aniskiewicz (1994) reported that studies show the DARE programmes long term effectiveness is non-existent. The study was based in Indiana and used an experiment to show its findings. The study compared a DARE Group with a non-DARE group over 4 years, the study concluded with a long term evaluation that it was ineffective in the long term.

The methodology used was not stated but appeared to me a randomised control trial. The authors supported their findings arguing the qualitative results were replicated and supported by their academic analysis. Howell (2003 p: 130 - 171) reported a position of opposition to the DARE programme arguing that it *'had staying power despite being ineffective and that it is the most widely acclaimed 'successful' intervention of all ineffective delinquency prevention programmes and the most rigours evaluations have showed that DARE is ineffective'*.

Boyle (2001) supported the view of Howell by suggesting that despite empirical evidence that it is not effective it continues as the panacea to address youth and drugs. Howell, (2003) does defend his comments stating the reason the programme does not work is its fundamental belief in repressive deterrence that gains public and political support, as it stresses the consequences to the public through fear. On critical reflection of Howell (2003) argues that the author is against state run programmes, law enforcement and as a solution using this as a deterrence.

Despite the slim evidence of its success against a strong argument that it is ineffective, the US government continue to fund and support the programme. The evidence that it has not stopped drug, alcohol or tobacco use amongst young people, but it has improved the relationship between the police and the young people. However, there is no research to evaluate the value of this relationship in terms of the investment made in the programme.

Birkland, Murphy, Graham and Weiss (2005, p. 248) provide some account as to why the policy makers simply ignore the research or evaluation. The authors argued that all the evaluations and research evidence on DARE provided consistent findings that '*no statistically significant effect for DARE on 'self-reported drug use'*'. However, many of the supporters of DARE felt the evaluators missed the point by focusing the studies on the wrong outcomes.

The issue of the DARE programme will be discussed at various places in this research. The evidence has shown is that the DARE programme is ineffective or that there is no evidence it has had any effect with young people and drugs, alcohol or tobacco. However, there is evidence that its value rests in the narrowing the gap between the police and the young people and that the evaluators simply concentrated on the wrong outcomes arguing that the '*measurement of success was too high and unrealistic, no one intervention is strong enough to counter drug pressure in society*' (Birkland, Murphy, Graham and Weiss, 2005, p. 250).

Whatever side is taken, what has been demonstrated in the literature is the programme is popular, albeit with political backing and subsequent funding. Whilst the value for money is blurred, the US government continue to persist in the programme at a vast federal cost. There is an interesting connection to the SPP, which has also seen some investment but offers no evidence of success in terms of reducing crime, yet it continues, albeit with loose funding arrangements and on an ad hoc basis.

This research has made a comparison with the US, more notably the DARE model. A note of caution is needed as whilst there are some clear similarities with the model of DARE and the SSP/AWCSLP and how this evidence has been used within the research, there are some dangers in assuming any transferability between the US and the UK models as cited in the body of this study. The US government have committed millions of dollars from federal funds to this project (Wysong, Aniskienicz & Wright, 1994) and are able to provide a large number of US Police Officers into schools. Their roles are not just class room based, they provide mentoring and wider pastoral support. Crucially the objectives or definitions of success, are very different to the UK based models.

Rape education as an Intervention in the US

Whilst different to the DARE programme, but of equal relevance, the US education programme to safeguard young people against sexual crime was examined to show how difficult behavioural change is and other ways of introducing safeguarding into a class room. The US Clery ACT 1998, required all federal college campuses develop and implement sexual assault programmes, which include awareness, prevention and acquaintance rape (Whithey, 2010, p.804). The introduction of the awareness programmes was due to the incidences of rape on college campuses (Anderson and Whitson, 2005).

The aim of rape awareness programmes in the US is to address personal attitudes, as this is the central driver that affects attrition and offending. The education programmes in the US, or intervention programmes as they more commonly known, attempt to address rape myths (Burt, 1980) and seek to challenge attitudes and change behaviour (Temkin and Krahe, 2008 p:203). However, this is not easy as the change in personal attitude and behaviour is a complex process as this article will show.

Ward (1995) carried out extensive research on the attitudes towards rape and concluded that intervention programmes do not work, in terms of changing attitude, by citing a number of factors such as poor programme design, poor teaching and students could be previously affected by rape (p.140). Such programmes considered external factors to change attitude that rely on the induction of cognitive dissonance, where two cognitions (attitudes, opinions and beliefs) contradict each other (p.141) arguing that to change attitudes requires a lot of psychological energy (p.142). This is something most programmes simply do not have the time to provide and that such programmes are scarce and inconsistent (Ward, 1995 p: 152). There is no other similar programme in the UK and rape intervention programmes were not highlighted in any evaluation or other literature with the SPP or the AWLCP. Whilst there is no evidence of rape education being delivered in UK schools, the aims and objectives are so broad, the subject can be easily covered under the 'staying safe' umbrella.

Education as an intervention in UK schools

The research has covered the broad subject of the Safer Schools Partnership (SSP) which has included using education as a method of class interaction and intervention. Whilst such an approach has solid foundations in the US, it is less entrenched in England. The AWLASC demonstrated how education interventions in schools can be achieved with the investment, it remains less well subscribed throughout England.

Many English schools embed police related matters within the Public Social Health Education (PSHE) curriculum. This is not mandatory, therefore not every school includes PSHE in the curriculum. This is a complex field that is not mandated and is left for local Head Teachers to exercise curriculum discretion to address PSHE matters. When reviewing citizenship in terms of school's education, the Crick Report stated '*It can no longer sensibly be left as uncoordinated local initiatives which vary greatly in number, content and method*'. (Crick, 1998, p: 7). Whilst there is no scholarly material to rely upon, it is suggested that Crick (1998) is confirming the ad hoc and uncoordinated arrangement that currently exist with police/school's education programmes. This is the position in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight as explained in greater detail within the discussion chapter below.

Whitey (2010 p: 805) confirmed that the findings of Fisher and Colleagues proved that an intervention itself improved attitudes the very short term, but then '*rebounded to pre – intervention levels within two to five months*'. This point will be examined further in the discussion chapter, however, in summary, it is purported that an initial talk or session by a professional can provide an intervention, but it short term unless a teacher or other professional reinforces the message or learning.

Public Social Health and Education

Whilst the SSP provides a framework for education and the police to operate, the Public, Social, Health and Education (PSHE) is the education lead agency that represent the government on the agenda of safeguarding children in schools and equipping them with a range of life skills. The PSHE is the body that provides governance to the delivery of the programmes within the school curriculum.

Section 78 of the Education Act 2002 and the Academies Act 2010 state all school curriculums should:

‘promote the spiritual, moral, cultural, mental and physical development of pupils at the school of society and prepares pupils at the school for opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of later life’.

Public Social Health and Education (PSHE) should address both pupils’ direct experience and preparation for their future with a spiral programme that ensure learning is revisited, reinforced and extended in age and stage appropriate contexts (PSHE, 2013). Looking at PSHE as part of the overarching citizen agenda, the Crick Report (1998) stated that the teaching connected to citizenship often involves discussing controversial issues as is covered with PSHE teaching.

Like most education programmes the PSHE agenda was subjected to government reviews.

'PSHE remains an important and necessary part of all pupils' education. We believe that all schools should teach PSHE, drawing on good practice, and have outlined this expectation in the introduction to the new National Curriculum' (DfE, 2013).

However, despite the strong support from the Department for Education (DfE) in its review, the government concluded that the PSHE programme would remain non – statutory and that no new programmes of study would be published.

The DfE stated *'All schools should make provision for personal, social and economic education, drawing on good practice'*. (Section 2.5 National Curriculum Framework). This is an interesting position for the government to take. Clearly the DfE see a need in the programme but without the full support of the government to make it a statutory requirement, schools and professionals responsible for health, safety and wellbeing of children are left with a difficult dilemma. Schools have to choose whether or not they want to include a curriculum that has PSHE programmes.

The direction to schools from the DfE was that 'schools should make provision' which is arguably too vague. Any school can simply provide a 15-minute voluntary session to fulfil this criteria. It is understandable that in a performance driven culture the competition for space in any school time table will be high, which adds further weight to the research in creating a balanced evidenced need for the police and education to agree a time-table of dedicated slots to deliver an evidence based programme within the PSHE agenda.

The PSHE practice is governed through the PSHE association, consisting of qualified teachers and it acts as the operating arm for the DfE. Whilst PSHE is a non-statutory subject within the curriculum, it is the only body that sets and maintains the standards with the PSHE curriculum subjects. The PSHE Association also set out the training standard that teachers or other professionals who deliver PSHE subjects to schools should achieve.

The PSHE Association recommended that teachers and professionals attend a one-day training course, delivered by the PSHE to equip them to deliver the PSHE programmes into the schools. Crick (1998) maintained that the teachers must be adequately trained to deliver this subject. This is a relevant point to the wider research study and is discussed later.

Ofsted (2012) reported that the quality of PSHE education is not yet good enough in a sizeable proportion in schools and the leadership required improvement in 42% of schools.

The report made a number of recommendations for the Department of Education, Schools and teacher training institutes, the recommendations feature at various points in this research. The 2010 Education White Paper makes the importance of effective PSHE education in school:

‘Children can benefit enormously from high quality Personal, Social, Health and Economic (PSHE) education. Good PSHE supports individual young people to make safe and informed choices.’ (DfE, 2012 p 16).

Having examined where the programmes fit into school curriculum and the governance behind them, the next chapter will explore how such programmes are designed and delivered in the context with the role of the police as facilitators. It is accepted that an examination into the role of the police is an objective of the research, this chapter investigates how or if the value of the programmes can be improved by giving the child a voice in the design. The connection between using children to help in the design and the police delivering the subsequent intervention is made out in the findings.

School-based safeguarding programmes: Learning

The focus of the research is around the role of the police in safeguarding programmes in schools. Part of the discussion is around the police going into schools and delivering a programme of safeguarding subjects to children. Whilst this study is not designed to articulate learning, however, it is sensible to provide a broad and brief overview of learning. There are some limitations around this section as learning as a concept is vast and widely reported upon, however, its inclusion in this study is to give the reader a brief insight to some academic concepts that develop learning.

Merriam & Caffarella, (1991) argue there are four main theories of learning. They do not differentiate between adults and children. They report the Behaviourist, Cognitive, Humanist (experiential) and Social are the four theories of learning.

Behaviourist theory has a long history, with the leading research of Thorndike (1928) where 'trial and error' learning was reported upon. Thorndike's theory focused on the fundamental way of behaving, the learner is able to discover that if an act or explanation is to be effective or valid, it will be repeated until such time as the consequences of the action no longer produce the desired or expected results. The other leading research in behaviourist theory was psychological research into classical conditioning. Pavlov (1927) proposed the theory that the learner learns to associate the presentation of a reward with a stimulus that occurs fractionally before it.

However, there are challenges with the behaviourist theory as reported in Jarvis (2004) who argued that the definition is confusing. A view shared in Hilgard and Atkinson (1979, p: 217) suggesting that learning is '*a relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as result of a prior experience*'. Jarvis (2004) expanded on this stating that learning is the process that occurs before the change: process and product cannot be the same thing.

The second learning theory is cognitive learning. Jarvis (2004) proposed that the 5 stages of cognitive learning was the preferred model used by many academics. Whilst it would be possible to review other theorists who have published research about learning from cognitive framework, who although have adapted different approaches the analysis overlaps. The 5 stage theory was proposed by Piaget (1929) and is biologically related to development in childhood, with step 5 being within the age category of this study:

- '*Stage 1 Sensori – motor, when infants learn to differentiate between themselves and objects in the external world, and this occurs during the first two years*
- '*Stage 2 Pre-operational thought, children classify external objects by single salient features, and this spans the period from about two to four years*

- *Stage 3 Intuitive, when children think in classificatory terms without necessarily being conscious of them, a stage that stretches from pre-operational thought to about seven years of age*
- *Stage 4 concrete operations, between seven and eleven, when children think using logical operations*
- *Formal operation thinking, when children take early steps in abstract conceptual thought'. Jarvis (2004 p. 86 – 87).*

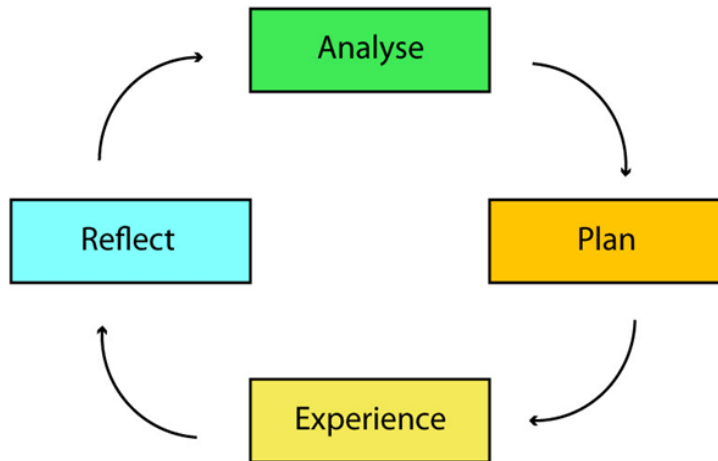
Bandura (1969) produced widely published research on social learning, using behavioural patterns that people exhibit having been learned by observing and copying others. People watch others and imitate their behaviour in order to feel safe the environment. The experiment Bandura relied upon was observing children watching violence and then imitating it using dolls (Bandura, 1969). This is and relevant theory when establishing what is a desired teaching method in the design and delivery of the programmes.

The final theory and arguably the most central is the experiential learning theory, however, it is more suited to vocational learning or work based learning. For this reason, this research will consider this theory and rely on the relevant evidence to this study. Experiential learning is about learning from primary experience; that is learning through sense experiences, and experience has been treated as having a sequence of episodic experiences.

Learning from a primary experience, therefore is learning in a practical situation where individuals are learning to experience an actual situation and to learn from it (Jarvis, 2004).

The other experiential learning theory is secondary experience, which is linguistic; it occurs through normal conversation, listening to lectures, debates and any form of monologue, dialogue including listening to media. In summary it is being communicated through words and pictures. However, the meaning being communicated is always someone else's interpretation and never that of the learner (Jarvis, 2004). This is relevant to this study as the centre of the research are school based safeguarding programmes delivered to school children by way of some form of communication and will be in the interpretation of the person who delivers the session.

Kolb (1984) proposed a model that represents the experiential theory which he describes as the learning cycle. The learning cycle incorporates the possibility of two modes of experience, as it allows for the learning process to start either with concrete experience, or anywhere else on the cycle, including that of generalisation and conceptualising, although the process is often assumed to begin with the concrete experience (Kolb and Fry, 1975). This theory was chosen as it can begin at any stage in development and is a continuous cycle, Jarvis, (2004) believed that the learning cycle is popular because of its simplicity.



Mullins (2010) p. 183.

Figure 3: 1: Kolb's Learning Cycle

The next stage in the theory of education that is relevant and adds value to the evidence with this study is learning styles. This study will later address the best way to deliver the safeguarding programmes to children. Important factors include the costs attached and the availability of the people to deliver the programmes.

Learning styles will influence how the programmes are delivered in schools and the desire to change professional practice makes it essential that a range of options open to the professionals to consider which should take account of learning styles; therefore, there must be a connection between delivery and style. Honey and Mumford (1992) devised learning styles based on Kolb's model. They stated that in order to learn we need to do something (activist), review how it went (reflect), learn from the review (theorist) and then apply the learning next time we do the activity (pragmatist).

Petty (2009) argued that good learning requires using the cycle and the styles at appropriate times, by planning lessons on Kolb's cycle. Whilst there are a number of other complex academic theories that propose learning styles, Petty (2009 p: 145) reported that Coffield, Moseley and Ecclestone (2004) carried out the '*most thorough and authoritative review of learning styles we have*'. They concluded that there many styles but Herrmann's (1990) 'whole brain' theory remains the most relevant in education today. In simple terms, Herrman proposed that the brain is divided into a left and right. The right brain relates to the visual and holistic learner (big picture, avoid rules, intuitive and lacks detail) whilst the left brain leans towards the verbal sequential learner (logic, step by step, rules and structure).

This model can be taken to the class room, which is connects the study to the learning. Petty (2009) argued that by using Herrmann's model in a classroom environment the teacher can adapt the lesson presentation to address any of the following approaches:

- The visual approach: diagrams, videos or other visual graphic mediums
- The auditory approach: Teacher led explanation and class discussions
- Kinaesthetic approach: Students physically do something, hands on or experience simulations

The range of learning styles and learning theories are broad and arguably meet the criteria of the delivery of the current school based programmes as outlined in the 'review of What Hampshire Constabulary delivered to schools in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight'. However, what is less clear within the delivery of the programmes is the outcome, or purpose.

Whilst dealing with the education element of the study, a distinction should be made between a presenter and a teacher. A teacher undergoes bespoke education training whereas a presenter is often a subject matter expert, normally not a teacher or member of staff in the education establishment they are delivering in. Therefore, although they provide information, they take account of learning styles and tailor the delivery as required. External speakers are often presenters and their value to the programmes is examined below.

The final part of the learning styles/approach was to look at what students prefer. Giving students a voice is covered in this study and widely accepted in education as important (Unicef, 1989) and Carnie (2010). Hebditch, (1990) carried out a study of 11 to 18 years, using a questionnaire survey method asking 'what teaching methods they prefer'. In summary, the students reported that they preferred group discussions and Games/simulations (80%) and rated Theories (15%), Essays (13%) and lectures (11%) as their least preferred styles.

The students like action, talking in groups, making things and doing things, and dislike passive methods such as lectures. Whilst there are some research limitations to this study, it does present a model that educators can use to adapt lessons (Petty, 2009). Such evidence is relevant to this study is will be explored in more depth in the discussion chapter later.

CHAPTER FOUR

Design and Delivery Options of Safeguarding Programmes:

This chapter will address the second objective of the study and explore various methods where school-based programmes could be delivered in different ways using the police. This formed part of the qualitative research method and will feature later in the discussion chapter. It was important to explore other delivery methods and allow the interviewees greater scope to debate the options. The focus of the study in the aims and objectives is the role of the police and whether an external speaker provided any greater value than a child's normal teacher.

Whilst not part of the research aims and objectives, the chapter investigated whether the voice of the child should be in the design of the programmes. The reason for this inclusion was to provide a greater understanding of how children think and feel about the programmes and to present evidence as to how to enhance the overall quality of the design product. The collaborative joint working of police and education is broadly investigated from an academic perspective, the joined up working part of the objectives as the roles of the police and education are examined. Safeguarding programmes, but this cannot be investigated in isolation of other options are taken as the main method.

Single External speakers

The literature review explored the evidence about Police Officers going into schools and delivering school based safeguarding programmes. Whilst the evidence in the available literature related to the value of Police going into schools has not been convincingly argued this study will investigate this as a research objective. Guest or external speakers are used by Universities and colleges of higher education, mainly industry experts. It is useful to examine how external speakers can be used in school education programmes.

Coleman (2014) argued that external speakers can be inspirational and pivotal to the students' learning, whilst students can benefit from external talks:

'Research indicates invited guest speakers can build linkages between academia and the practitioner, improve community – school relationships, provide professional role models for students, and greatly enhance student learning' (Snizek, 2005, p.1).

Lang (2008) researched external speaker techniques around effective implementation and found that all three parties (student, teacher and speaker) can benefit from the overall experience if it is well planned, whereas a poor presentation can have a negative effect on the learning.

Lang conclude *'the real clincher is for the teacher to create a tight fit between the course objectives and the speaker's purpose in being there'* (Lang, 2008, p. 5).

Robinson & Kakela, (2006) researched the educational advantages of the external speaker in the class room. Their findings argued that thoughts shared or taught repetitively by the same source tend to fall on deaf ears. They stated that *'when students sit passively as their professor delivers information by lecturing, they often do not become engaged in their learning'* (Robinson & Kakel, 2006, p. 204).

Guest speakers provide enhancement of the educational experience as a result of giving students real world knowledge, experience, insights and perspectives for their particular field (Glenwick & Chabot, 1991) whilst Nourse (1995) argued that the use of the guest speaker can add variety and spice to the class room to enhance the overall learning experience.

A key point in their research, and aligned to this study, was the suggestion that guest speakers affords the teacher the opportunity to have someone to share the learning journey and possibly the speaker has more developed knowledge and expertise or skill in their area of business. This can be easily translated to safeguarding school programmes where Police Officers or Police Community Support Officers represent the experts, who afford the teaching staff the facility to share the knowledge. This point will be debated in the discussion chapter of the study.

The safeguarding programmes delivered into schools arguably address social and safety issues that children face in everyday life a view endorsed by Poling (2000) commented '*the content students learn no longer seems like just schooling, it is part of the real world*' (Poling, 2000, p.10).

Arguably there are key benefits from having external speakers, but it is essential that the speaker does have the correct current knowledge and completed the preparatory material which can be supported by the education provider. Coleman (2004) suggested that many academics do not like to dilute their teaching with externals even though there is value to the learning experience however, the value has not been measured or quantified by research.

Children as part of the design

An element of the second objective was to explore other delivery methods and design options for safeguarding programmes. One important consideration is the exploration in allowing children to have a say in the design of the safeguarding programmes. Whilst there is a lack of evidence, the author's professional assumption is that the age gap between the professional design team and children who receive the education is significant. It is important when addressing social issues, is speaking in a language young people can resonate with, and using relevant presentations that mean something to children. This part of the literature will examine the case as to whether programmes can be designed and can give children a voice in their design and whether this will add value to the overall product.

Historically children's views have often been seen as unimportant and unreliable (National College for school leadership, 2007). However, there are two important documents that suggest quite the opposite. Article 12 of the United Nations (UN) convention on the rights of the child articulates the point, *'When adults are making decisions that affect children, children have the right to say what they think should happen and have their opinions taken into account'* (Unicef, 1989). The convention states *'that adults should listen to the opinions of children and include them in the decision making process.'* The Article does provide some context around this statement by setting some broad parameters that some weighting should be given to the age of the child, an example being the older child should have their opinion considered more than a primary school child.

The 1989 Children Act (DfE, 1989) simply compounds the direction of Article 12 whilst the Education Act, 2005 states '*Children want to know that they will be listened to and their concerns will be taken seriously*' (Education Act, 2005 Annex B Para 10).

The issue of giving children a voice or engaging with them as part of making decisions in their lives has attracted some academic debate. Cox (2010 *et al*) argued that schools have the potential to be sites of power for children. It is suggested that Cox *et al* (2010) are proposing that if children are included in some way they can be placed in a place of power, which is a good thing, but if they are simply overlooked then this approach becomes repressive for children. Fielding *et al* (2008:p2) referred to the student voice as the practice of '*Listening purposefully and respectfully to young people In the context of formal schooling*'. Carnie, (2010) carried out relevant research on this subject. Carnie did a research project in Portsmouth, Hampshire, which was not part of this research sample area, but in the same county and largely connected in terms of policing and safeguarding of children, Carnie, (2010) worked to a 'student voice strategy:'

- Student involvement in governance, management and school improvement
- Peer Support
- Developing a listening culture
- Students having a say in their learning
- Students involvement in the community

This research is focused on the 4th strand '*Students having a say their learning*'. Teachers were encouraged to create learning environments that were interactive settings for learners to contribute to the planning and feeding back to staff about their learning. The project looked at personalising the learning through the student voice which included children designing the curriculum.

An example of such a school outside of Carnie's sample, was Wroxham School in Hertfordshire that use the strap line '*We are a listening and a teaching school*' (Wroxham, 2013). It was difficult to attribute the teaching style to the performance of the school, however, a connection could be found through the Head Teacher Alison Peacock, who was awarded a Dame in the 2014 New Year's Honours list and the school moved from a failing school to outstanding (CBI, 2012). Fielding (2008), *et al*/reported that colleagues drew benefit from the Portsmouth learning community who were able to show the essential contribution made by talking and listening to each other.

Whilst Carnie uses the terms 'student voice' other academics use the terms 'Participation' or 'Consultation. Bragg (2007) distinguishes between the two suggesting that consultation seeks views, which can be collaborative and does not have to include any participation, whilst participation engage a range of stakeholders to generate ideas, deepens debate and seeks to emerge with solutions. Hudson, (2012 p. 2) reported that participation is

often seen as *'a spectrum of activity ranging from consultation to children identifying issues and sharing decision making with adults.'*

One of the most prominent theories on this subject was provided by Hart (1992) who designed the 'Ladder of Participation'. Hart presented the theory using a step ladder to understand the balance between children and adults in decision making. The three lowest rungs on the ladder (manipulation, decoration and tokenism) are not considered participative. Figure 4.1 below represents Hart's Ladder of Participation.

Rung 8	Youth initiated shared decisions with adults: Youth led activities in which decision making is shared between youth and adults working as equal partners.	Degrees of Participation
Rung 7	Youth initiated and directed: Youth led activity with little input from the adults.	Degrees of Participation
Rung 6	Adult initiated shared decisions with youth: Adult led activities in which decision making is shared.	Degrees of Participation
Rung 5	Consulted and informed: Adult led activities in which the youth are consulted and informed about how their input will be used and the outcomes of adult decisions	Degrees of Participation
Rung 4	Assigned, but informed: Adult based activity in which the youth understands the purpose, decision making and has a role	Degrees of Participation
Rung 3	Tokenism: Adult led activity in which the youth maybe consulted with minimum opportunities for feedback	Non Participation
Rung 2	Decoration: Adult led activities in which the youth understands the purpose but has no input in how they are planned	Non Participation
Rung 1	Manipulation: Adult led activities in which youth do as directed with understanding or purpose	Non Participation

(Fig 4:1 Ladder of participation)

Ladder of participation, (Hart, 1992)

Participative activity initiated by government is normally the 4th or 5th rung of the ladder (Hudson, 2012). Hart (1992) describes participation with this model as having the following requirements to meet the ‘assigned but informed’ part of the ladder:

- The children understand the intentions of the project
- They know who made the decisions concerning their involvement and why
- They have meaningful (rather than decorative) role

- They volunteer for the project after the project was made clear to them.

To achieve the 'consulted but informed' part the children would need to not only be asked their views but for this to be a meaningful process with feedback and involvement in the outcome of the consultation. There are few examples of child initiated consultation. Citizenship education and PSHE put the emphasis on young people developing skills of participation in their schools or may be facilitating youth councils and other forums (Bragg, 2007).

An issue with a strategy designed to consult with children involves the selection of the children to consult with those to exclude from the process. Drakeford (2006) argued that children are particularly concerned about fairness in participation, they are critical of participation where only some of the children have the opportunity to take part and often see the bias of selection for those who participate.

Hill, (2006) expanded on the selection bias issue by suggesting that some children thought that the 'listened to' children's views carried more weight either because they were more confident in a group discussion, or the adults were more inclined to take their views more seriously. The sample selection debate for the child engagement group is discussed later in this research.

The White Paper *Excellence in Schools*, prepared by the Secretary of State for Education on the 19th November 1997, made a pledge to strengthen education for citizenship and the teaching of democracy in schools. This pledge was delivered through the Advisory Group with clear direction to include '*practices of participation*' (Crick, 1998 p: 4). The wider terms of reference were set out in an agenda for the school curriculum to cover opportunities to teach about citizenship within and outside of a formal curriculum. Crick (1998 p: 9) concluded that the benefit of citizenship education for pupils will be an entitlement in schools that will '*empower them to participate in society effectively*'. It is suggested that the White Paper (Excellence in Schools) and the work of Crick (1998) is wide and designed to capture the preparation of children as they enter society as opposed to the 'staying safe' theme of this research, however, the relevance to the study is the connection to the PSHE curriculum and the participation of children.

This part of the research seemed a necessary yet very obvious avenue to pursue. There was nothing in the literature to suggest that the police use pupils to critique or at least provide feedback or contribute to the decision making in the design (Rung 5 or 6 of Hart, 1992). There seemed to be no viable reason why the police do not engage or allow the children to participate. The danger of the current model of non-participation is that the police operate in the Rung 1 zone (Hart, 1992) which is at odds with an outcome of the police being seen as purely directive with children within their wider role.

If the police allow children to participate and show they can operate in the participatory rungs, then this may have greater benefits within their community role or achieve legitimacy with the future the adult population. Schools councils or 'youth voice' has provided sound foundations to consider the inclusion of children in the design of the programmes. There was academic research to support the children participation in the main provided by Hart, (1992).

The Citizenship evidence was supported by some academic scholarly work such as (Bragg 2007), but also the Crick Report, (1998). This was a far-reaching report that referred to citizenship in terms of how children are equipped to progress beyond school and become valuable members of society. Within this it addressed PSHE education in the school and pupil participation.

Collaboration: Police and Education

The first recorded programme of liaison between the Police and Education was in 1966 when the Chief Constable of West Sussex achieved approval from the police Committee for Police for school liaison Officers and in the subsequent year provided stated objectives that included a liaison scheme to establish a working relationship between the police and the school community (Weller, 1975). The Metropolitan Police Commissioner followed this theme in 1978 in leading the Metropolitan Police towards joint working with education, the Commissioner stated '*We can expect neither to earn nor maintain public confidence and respect if we ignore the future generation*' (McNee, 19978).

Following this statement, the Commissioner, set up a working party consisting of Police Officers, Teachers and Educational Advisors. He set out a vision that the joint framework of professionals must speak to all children from an early age to assist them to gain the necessary knowledge and to help them become responsible citizens. (Leithead, 1980). The momentum for police and education partnerships continued as ACPO (2014) suggested that senior links between Police and Education should be established. (ACPO/SEO, 2014).

The leadership position on this issue evolved a little over the years with n emphasis on resource implications. ACPO became reluctant for officers to be involved in drug education in schools because of the work load and demand requirements. Although ACPO recognised the important role the police had in assisting schools to deliver drugs education, they went on to state the police should not allow education to abdicate their responsibility (ACPO, 1993).

The Crime and Disorder Act (1998) directed local authorities to work together and formulate a strategy to reduce crime and disorder in their area and work with every police authority, probation authority, health authority, social landlords, voluntary sector. However, the Act did not focus primarily on police/education partnership. There are clear advantages to working collaboratively as highlighted in Parker & Gallagher (2007) who argued that it allows new spaces to be created and can engage effectively with the public. Edwards, (2007 p:130) argued that '*unlike formal partnerships, collaboration is messy, complicated and to a great extent based on individual relationships*' it is also difficult to measure and hard to evidence success as well as meeting a constant change of priorities. The view of Edwards is very interesting 'relationships are key', however, this could be an issue with forming collaborative arrangements that has no statutory foundation.

Whilst some of the literature examined the link between children and crime there is very little literature that provided any commentary on any collaborative arrangements between then police and education who deliver education programmes in United Kingdom schools. There SSP was the major government policy, and was shaped by some very influential government reports such as the Every Child Matters report (1998). The literature evidence will rely on the academic evaluations of the collaborative work by Bharaba et al (2004) and (Stead et al 2001) to comment on the reports and the value of the working arrangements.

The review also looked at similar arrangements in the US involving drugs (DARE) and the rape intervention programme. The academic research on these subjects argued that the value of the programmes continues to be open to challenge, but they remain popular and continue to be delivered in the US. (Wysong, Aniskiewicz and Wright, 1994).

Lovell, (2005, p:19) commented that '*collaboration between schools and the police is not easy*,' whilst Rosiak, (2009 p: 4) argued Law enforcement and education have a number of challenges in terms of joint working, different jobs, different missions; schools educate and law enforcement protect the public and they represent different professional cultures. Recent education programmes by the government (Labour) have been about tackling crime suggesting that youth justice and education run along parallel lines offering little convergence (Stephenson, 2007).

However, Winstone and Pakes (2005) took a very different view by arguing schools have a role to play in all levels of crime prevention; individual, situational and structural. This thinking formed the basis of the AWLSCP and the SSP. Although the AWLSCP and the SPP are different in terms of structure, the principle of mixing educators with the police is common and according to Bhabra, Hill and Ghate, (2004) is largely effective. Ringwalt *et al* (1994 p: 1999) placed some parameters to conclude the value of the programmes 'law related education, on its own, does not reduce delinquency, but as part of a broader programme to improve the class room environment, it reduces delinquency.

Broadening the evidence to the objective of the study, the joint working and collaborative arrangements of the education and the police was shown in the safeguarding theme within the statutory arrangements of the LSCB as set out by the Children Act (2004).

This chapter examined and presented evidence around the design and delivery of school based safeguarding programmes. This has a clear connection towards the research aims and objectives as it investigated what role the police have in designing and delivering the programmes, referred as the external speaker. It also brought together the wider issue of joined up working with police and education. The chapter referred to the academic evidence on external speakers in a class room setting and how the voice of a child was valuable in taking their views and enhancing learning; necessary to make the programmes meet their raising awareness criteria. The chapter included legislative and academic evidence to argue that there is a need for joint police and education working arrangements, but the current framework is not clear. The chapter made a connection between the Local Safeguarding Children Board and the Children Act (2004) which sits at the heart of the objectives and outcome of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

Methodology

This chapter outlines the methodology used to achieve the findings of the questions posed in the research. The methods chapter will initially look at the research paradigms and sketch out a range of research options as a strategy to achieve the best evidence that connect to research aims and objectives whilst capable of withstanding scrutiny and can make a contribution to academic knowledge; victimology. The chapter will argue why collecting interview qualitative evidence through interviews was the preferred strategy. Some time is dedicated to the purposive sample, outlining why bespoke professional senior decision makers and local authority staff were selected, together with the rationale as to the selected schools in the research. The chapter will present some research limitations identified together with the ethical considerations as approved by the ethics committee. The chapter will conclude with an approach to the analysis by way of a narrative as to how the findings were analysed into a meaningful product. The chapter will start with a note on the literature.

A note on the literature

This section explains how the literature was approached. The literature set out to inform the research of the academic and government policy that surround the subject. The section shows the rationale for what literature was selected to review and relied upon as evidence. This topic does not have a wealth of literature available to research, making this investigation useful in its contribution to introducing new knowledge.

The strategy used to review the literature was largely based on making the case for the research and the need for the police to join education providers in safeguarding school children. I decided to keep the literature separate from the methods as I had to make the case within the available literature before I could apply any methodology to investigate and achieve my aims. I set a broad framework to identify the concept that the research would rely upon in terms of identifying a need for this research and what new knowledge could be introduced; in other words, 'who will benefit from the new knowledge?

The initial focus was of web based searches using key words as my selection criteria that were embedded in the objectives: Education, police, youth, crime, prevention and interventions in schools. This proved to be too wide, so the criteria was narrowed to limit the scope to school- based education programmes with a crime and safety thread. The literature ranged from peer reviewed journals, academic texts, web based sources and government policy, guidance or reports. I used a mixture of home office statistics as well as survey statistics such as MORI to provide me with more balance.

The literature also considered similar collaborative working in the United States as well as UK academic literature that reported on the joint work. I used the work of the US DARE project as this represented class – based interventions with supporting scholarly scrutiny. This review looked at the ‘youth voice’ or schools council research that is part of the research objectives aimed at giving children an opportunity to help design the programmes. Finally, the literature research narrowed into a local perspective focused on Hampshire and Isle of Wight.

Within the methodology, similar to the literature review, I systematically went through my approach in strands. I set out to show what methods I used and argued the case to use the method. I then moved on to undertaking or ‘justifying my selection criteria of doing’ the research. I called this the methods. Here I set out how I found my sample demonstrating why and how I did the research and the strategy used to analyse the data.

Research paradigms

In setting out a research strategy it is helpful to broadly distinguish between the two main research paradigms, qualitative and quantitative. Creswell, (2003 p.4) argues that the methodology, strategy or plan of action that links the methods to the outcome governs our choice and use of methods and is also a feature of finding a research question. Morse (1994, p. 1) deals with the distinction between the two paradigms of qualitative and quantitative, arguing that the laboratory environment of the qualitative researcher is everyday life and cannot be contained in a test tube, started, stopped, manipulated or washed down the sink and that natural science of the world, popularly described as positivism, and can be contrived as a raw scientific experiment (Bryman, 2008, p. 13).

Teddie and Tashakkori (2009, p. 5) define quantitative methods as 'techniques associated with gathering, analysis, interpretation and presentation of numerical information'. It is argued that quantitative measurement deals with the measurement or testing of a hypothesis whilst qualitative provides the exploration or the *'how and why of the question'*. Neuman, (2011, p. 199) highlighted the advantages of quantitative research by arguing that measurement of a hypothesis and an evaluation and explanation to provide empirical support for a theory, study or applied use, in essence the research outcome must be measured and tested for its reliability, however this fails to take any notice of what the data actually means. In contrast to the quantitative method, Creswell (2003) recorded that qualitative research is exploratory and researchers use it to explore a topic when the theory and variables are unknown.

Hammersely (2008, p. 22) suggested behaviour must be understood before people can interpret how they view the world and themselves. Set against this, quantitative research is not able to provide an adequate understanding of 'peoples perspectives', ignoring the deep understanding of life, how professionals see their world and solutions to improve or change the criminal justice sector: in contrast qualitative research meets some of these needs (Hammersley, 2008, p. 23).

The research found that the interpretive philosophical nature of the inquiry accommodated the direction of the study. Interpretive research is within the hermeneutic and phenomenological traditions of research (Morehouse, 2012, p. 1). In critically evaluating the research paradigms, it is suggested that they are different, but can complement each other. Arguably this is the direction intended in mixed methods. Westerman (2006, p. 17) links interpretive inquiry with all of the paradigms by broadly defining interpretive inquiry as quantitative, qualitative and mixed method and knowledge that cannot be reduced to a single privileged perspective nor can it be reduced to cause and effect. The world cannot be broken down into small pieces and manipulated or objectified.

Choosing a paradigm

Whilst in the process of selecting a preferred method the research strategy narrowed the field down into a choice of between quantitative questionnaire, qualitative interviews or qualitative focus groups. Dealing with questionnaires first, questionnaires are generally used in quantitative research and provide measurable statistical data; this approach was rejected as more detail from the respondents was needed and would have the added benefit of probing and being rich in detail, a strength of the qualitative paradigm. The quantitative outcome will portray a picture, but it is the detail that surrounds the data that can most effectively shape the research outcome.

Quantitative research is defined as '*within the positivist approach to natural science, where researchers prefer precise data and often use experiments, surveys and statistics*' (Neuman, 2011, p. 96). It must also have two conditions '*no logical contradictions and it must be consistent with observed facts*' (Neuman, 2011, p. 98). Teddie and Tashakkori (2009, p. 5) define quantitative research as '*techniques associated with gathering, analysis, interpretation and presentation of numerical information*' whilst Walklate (2000, p: 185) argues that '*the positivist reflects the traditional view of science and scientific knowledge*'.

It is suggested that there is a clear theme that defines both quantitative and qualitative research paradigms from each other. Quantitative is a scientific approach that measures and records precise data, whilst qualitative research provide the detail and as explained in Morse (1994 p. 18) by smoothing out the contradictions. Bryman (2008, p.623) provides further clarity between the two strategies quantitative research brings out the static picture of social life, qualitative is more about process, in other words quantitative shows the difference whilst qualitative explores the process behind the difference.

This part of the research study will justify why it did not employ a quantitative strategy but rather a qualitative paradigm. Crucially the paper will allude to where quantitative research and mixed methods can be used in a subsequent wider study on the same subject.

Looking at the quantitative approach to using questionnaires or survey method, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000, p. 245) define the questionnaire as a '*widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data that is administered without the presence of the researcher*', May (1993, p. 79) argued that the purpose of a questionnaire was to measure some characteristics or opinion of its respondents in a numerical structure. It is suggested that the crucial strength of the questionnaire is its design to investigate attitudes and behaviours which would be useful in this study.

The hermeneutic critical point is that questionnaires cannot guarantee that the questions will be interpreted as they were intended by the respondents and that attitudes and actions are two different things: what people say and they do and what they actually do can be very different (May, 1993, p.87). As a critical assessment of questionnaires it is accepted that the research tool is a good method to examine attitudes, offering a degree of privacy and protection to the respondent which are key objectives of the research.

Questionnaire methods arguably fail to address the research question and offer no opportunity for the key actors within the education process to explain their interpretation of how they see things and to qualify any measured statistical information, which, put simply, is easy to establish, but not so easy to provide a valuable explanation or a proof of concept.

Whilst questionnaires have the potential to reach a wide audience and capture a wide variety of detail, the counter argument is the response rate is low and does not really allow the researcher the opportunity to explain to the participant what exactly is being explored. The questionnaire can be cost effective and can save a great deal of time with associated costs and introductory meetings to gain access. Its chief limitation is that it cannot provide the rich qualitative detail which would meet the research objectives. For these reasons the questionnaire method was rejected.

Whilst examining research methods I also considered and rejected mixed methods for the same reasons as quantitative was rejected. To be in a position to reject mixed methods I had to look carefully at the method and whether as a strategy it could form part of the research. Creswell (2003, p. 215) defines mixed method research as a sequential explanatory strategy that uses qualitative results to explain the quantitative results and a similar definition is found in (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, (2007, p. 120).

'Mixed methods research is the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches concepts or language into a single study or set of related studies'.

Focus Groups

Focus groups are defined in Bryman, (2008, p. 475) as: *'a form of group interview that includes several participants emphasis on a tight subject, question or topic'*. Schlesinger, (1992, p.168) argued that *'focus group practitioners try to discern patterns of variation by putting together groups with particular attributes or cluster of attributes, such as rape'*. Bryman, (2008, p. 487) suggests that focus group research is less artificial than many other methods, because it emphasises group interaction, and therefore it does not suffer from the problem of gleaning information in an unnatural situation.

It allows people to discuss situations that are quite normal to them. Morrison (1998, p. 154 -5) disagrees with this view and argues that it is not natural because the social setting is to a significant extent contrived. However, this could be applied to many research methods, as being interviewed or studied as part of an ethnographic study can also be seen as artificial, the key issue is, where is the line drawn in terms of trying to avoid an artificial environment?

By way of a critical assessment of focus groups, it is accepted that most qualitative research methods could, in theory, be contrived. It is suggested that the arguments raised in both Bryman and Schlesinger are aligned to the research question and free talking which are overarching needs of a qualitative study. A negative aspect and risk of using focus groups is that despite how detailed the briefing of the facilitator is, the researcher does lose control of the research.

The focus groups in this design feature children and school governors as the sample group. The ethics around this are difficult to overcome, as unqualified professionals running a focus group with children would require a high degree of permissions. The mechanics of running the focus group is covered in the 'conducting the research' section at a later part of the research (on page 60 - 61 for the children and 62 for the adults.)

Qualitative Interviews

Interviews are described by Robson (2003, p. 228) as:

'a conversation with a purpose' and defined in Cohen and Mansion, 1989, p.307) as 'initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant information and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic, description, prediction or explanation'.

Bryman (2008, p. 196) describes the type of interview used in qualitative research as Semi Structured interviews. This is where an interviewer has a set of questions in a schedule with some latitude to ask further questions. Structured interviews, as the name suggests contains a list of topics or issues called interview guide which is more formal than the semi structured style. Finally focus group is where interviewees asked open questions about a situation or event that is relevant to them. Fielding and Thomas (2008) define semi structured interviews as having a major question but allowing the researcher to alter the sequence and probe for more information at any point.

Unstructured interviews are open ended questions where the researcher is not aware of what he/she doesn't know and relies on the respondents to tell him/her. This is a fairly simplistic view on interviews but does actually capture what they are about and seek to achieve (Robson, 2003, p. 270) . Clearly the interview is around gathering information that has some detail and is rich in content that is connected to the research, the research question or to test a hypothesis (Cohen, Mansion and Morrison, 2000, p.268). Structured interviews are 'interviews with identical questions asked in the same order' (Fielding and Thomas, 2008 p. 246).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000 p.268) defined interviews as '*access to what is inside someone's head*', where Tuckam (1973 p.97) argues that interviews make it possible to measure what a person knows, likes or does not like. Robson (2011) suggests a real advantage of the interview method allows the researcher to obtain rich and highly illuminating material and provides an opportunity to follow up interesting responses which postal questionnaires cannot do.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) focus on the key advantages for the interview method for the researcher being that the method provides greater opportunity for asking, probing and in a similar view to Robson (2011) offers greater depth than other methods. Most of the academic research on interview method compares it to other qualitative methods such as questionnaires.

A critical assessment of Interview method is highlighted in May, (1993, p. 108) who argued that the answers to the questions tell the researcher little about reality outside of the interview and cannot be assumed to produce data that is relevant to the real world, making it more a topic of social research and not a resource for social research. In response to this it might be contested that if the questions are well designed and connected to the outcome together with a detailed cohort of respondents, the relevance to the real world will not be lost or the outcome anything but a resource, is that the respondents arguably represent the real world and therefore a true social resource.

In contrast Hammersley (2008) does not support the interview method offering the radical theory view that interview data can only present what goes on in an interview at a particular time and that people simply say what is in their heads. These points require some critical challenge. It is suggested that the points raised are obvious outcomes from an interview as any interviewer would like the interviewee to simply say what is on their minds. It is for the skilled researcher to make sense of the comments and ensure they are accurately reflected in the analysis and to construct reality through the 'telling'.

Further problems with interview method, as with focus groups, can be the hidden costs, time and logistics. As I was seeking an audience with working professionals, scheduled appointments were made in advance. There is no strategy to overcome practical issues other than to factor this into the time and costs of the research design, something I failed to do. Robson (2011) reported that there is lack of standardisation with interviews which simply invites a reliability challenge whilst interview bias is difficult to rule out.

The argument around the lack of standardisation is an accepted point, but standardisation is within the questionnaire method and this is not a viable option for this research, as covered in the literature.

Interview bias can be mitigated if the researcher remains professional, open minded and prepared to accept what people say even if it does not fit neatly with direction of the research. This concern was addressed in the ethical considerations chapter of this study.

Having explored a number of paradigms this research has selected a qualitative approach. The research did consider but did not use questionnaire and mixed methods for the reasons previously outlined. I have made a case to use focus groups, albeit within tight ethical parameters. There has been a fine balance to tread to use or not use interviews and structured or semi structured interviews.

I selected semi structured interviews as I felt this was the most likely tool to reach the aims for the research. Professionals in the field of the research are key: their knowledge, views, deep thoughts and critical thinking crucial in helping to shape the new knowledge. I also needed the opportunity to probe the views, challenge the thinking and really see how different professionals see the world from their perspective. I felt effectively no other method would meet the requirement to answer the research aims.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval had been sought from the University of Portsmouth Ethics committee and the Head of Partnerships in Hampshire Constabulary. The University of Portsmouth Ethics Committee provided approval following a detailed standard process which ensures the sample group or people, the reputation of the University and Organisation being researched is protected and the security of data is complied with. Part of the research was to include 3 focus groups of children, which although had direct involvement of the researcher, was still subject to a great deal of scrutiny.

The Head of Partnerships for Hampshire Constabulary accepted that the research may highlight some organisational weaknesses. However, he felt that this was more positive than negative and this research served as evidence that Hampshire Constabulary were taking positive action.

The interviewing of the education and PSHE professionals did not raise any ethical considerations, although caution had to be exercised with the Police Officers and staff. The researcher, was in most instances, more senior in rank to the staff, and had to tread the delicate line of ensuring they said what they meant as opposed to what they think they should say. This ground rule was set at the beginning with an agreement that they will remain anonymous and that only their real views can shape the research. The staff members from the Police selected as part of the sample were experienced and presented less of a risk than maybe more junior staff member.

Securing the consent of the sample was achieved through face to face meetings with the Head Teachers who facilitated access the schools. Access to staff of Hampshire Constabulary and the Crime Commissioner was done either directly or through the Head of Partnerships. In compliance with the Ethics Committee a formal letter was sent to each organisation outlining the ethical considerations and what has been put in place to mitigate them.

To ensure complete anonymity to each sample participant, each person was given a unique code that was known only to me. There was no risk of harm to the participants and I had no welfare considerations. The wider ethics for the children in the focus group was more challenging. Clearly any research that involves children will attract greater scrutiny from an ethical perspective. Accepting that the focus groups with children would be difficult to justify to the ethics committee from the outset, I set out to mitigate the safeguarding actions from the beginning. I agreed with the relevant schools that I would have no direct contact with the children whatsoever. I gave the school a set of questions to ask along with my research aims. I left it to them to select the groups and facilitate the session. I simply asked that a record of the session be made.

I also had a back-up plan that if the ethics committee would not allow the focus groups that I would simply interview the teacher who facilitated the session. I felt that by allowing the school to run the session and select the students I had mitigated against any ethical considerations. All of the data gathered in the research was secured into a pass word protected secure police computer with higher security protection than most home computers.

Finding the Purposive Sample

Bryman (2012 p: 418) argued that with purposive sampling '*the researcher does not seek to sample research participants on a random basis but rather sample in a strategic way, so that those sampled are relevant to the questions being asked*'. Robson (2011) provided a similar definition of purposeful sampling by suggesting that the researcher's judgement is based on the typicality or interest to the subject.

The academic theories support the strategy I used for selecting my sample. My approach was to select key people, as opposed to a lot of people, making this a purposeful sample. I felt key targeted professional people can have a strong influence on the direction of the research. As this is a specialise area of professional practice I felt the focus should be on the professional people and children who can comment with some validity on the questions contributing to the research.

I could have a lot of people related questions, but I had to challenge the logic of this as it would not help me move any closer to my objectives, however by focusing my research parameters on the professionals and children connected to the topic I felt I would be able to elicit more valuable evidence.

The research sample used in this study was six schools in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. The intention was for the selected schools to be as diverse as possible so an even spread of demographics within education authorities. The process to select the six schools was to use a dual category that featured both schools that had engaged with previous police education programmes and those who had not engaged. They were entered into two pools: 'engaged' and 'non- engaged' with police education programmes were entered into the 'non – engaged' schools. The schools were then randomly selected in an even spread of 6 each.

Whilst the proposal for including the non- engaged schools seemed sensible as it offered a wider range of choice, and I wanted to really explore why they had not engaged up to now; unfortunately, this did not prove to be possible. The previously non- engaged schools did not wish to participate with the research. An interesting explanation was presented by at least 3 schools *'we do not have a problem'* and *'we really do not like the police on our premises as it may give the impression that we have a problem'*.

The comments offer a really interesting debate. The negative schools form a minority, the majority of schools positively worked with the police at various junctures of the schools engagement or education programmes. This research cannot comment on the non-engaged schools any further as there is no evidence to show that they have any different issues to the engaged schools.

I intended to use a Portsmouth school in the study, but I was unable to secure access to Portsmouth schools. Whilst it would have been useful to use an urban school from this particular city, I was satisfied that I could represent a city school by working within Southampton. The intention was to make the range of the six schools broad and varied to make this research meaningful. I set parameters for the range of schools I wanted included in the research. My scope was to include:

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. City | 2. Semi – Urban |
| 3. Town | 4. Rural |
| 5. Religious | 6. Semi-Rural |
| 7. Affluent catchment | 8. Mixed catchment |
| 9. Inner City catchment | |

The People within the purposive sample

The next phase was to rationalise who would be the most appropriate person to interview. Whilst the Head Teacher would be an ideal person as head of the profession, I felt they were far too removed from the actual frontline delivery of the programmes and were not as connected to the programmes as other staff members are. I did make a decision to include a Head Teacher in the sample of professional leaders as part of the research to ensure their leadership expertise was utilised. Whilst using subject experts would provide greater professional value to the field work, a representation at Head Teacher level would provide the strategic view of education leadership.

Each school had a PSHE teacher. I felt the PSHE teacher was the appropriate person as they had current and relevant knowledge of the PSHE subjects, had seen the police deliver the training and were able to comment on the PSHE association and can reflect the value of the PSHE subjects. Access to the PSHE teachers was much easier having taken the long route of meeting each Head Teacher who, effectively sanctioned the research. In hindsight this was a long winded route and simply added a time delay and a layer of bureaucracy to the process. It transpired that appropriate consent to be interviewed could have been achieved by the PSHE teachers, or even their team leader.

The sample of police and the Office of Police and Crime Commissioner was selected purely on their connection to the programmes, influence on the delivery of the recommendations of the research and position within the organisation to provide a strategic overview on what represents value for money or not. Access to the police and the Police Commissioner was much easier as one request to the Head of Neighbourhood policing and a direct request to the Office of the Policing and Crime Commissioner was sufficient.

I selected the national Head and the Hampshire Heads of the PSHE association from Portsmouth, Southampton, Isle of Wight and Hampshire County Council. This is a direct co terminus correlation with the local authorities. Access to each PSHE interviewee was straight forward and was achieved initially through an introductory e mail followed by a brief meeting where I set out my research aims and objectives. Appointments were made shortly after this and most of them worked in Hampshire and Isle of Wight, making the travel affordable and manageable.

Access to the local PSHE staff was more challenging. The reason for this was the timing of the research. The field work of this study was very close to the Hampshire Constabulary review of school programmes. This was potentially problematic. As the key people involved in local authority PSHE was very limited it was inevitable that I would want to speak with the same people as the reviewing officer. This caused some confusion as they were unable to separate the work based review from the academic study.

I was able to overcome this by initially leaving a passage of time between the work of the reviewing officer and my field work. I also presented an abstract for them to consider which crucially separated the academic study and me as a researcher and not a Police Officer. I also had to make it explicitly clear in the opening part of the interviews.

Following the interview with the lead review officer, it was clear that there was an opposing view to how the programmes were delivered before and a wider pool of interviewees. I selected key educational professionals who worked closely the review officer. My rationale for selecting these professionals was largely to obtain a balanced view to the original design, challenge their thinking during the interviews and critically to explore two key points, giving the children a voice and greater depth into the strategic issues with PSHE programmes at the local authority level.

The selection of the children to take part in the focus group that were being asked to critique the education programmes written by the police, required careful thought and advice from the sample Head Teacher. Taking the views of Hill, (2006) and Drakeford, (2009) around the fairness of selecting children to be consulted in the design of the programmes, the sample group had to be carefully selected and managed. I felt the fairest and most ethically compliant method was to allow the schools to select the children as they had a greater understanding of them as pupils.

In the discussions with the Head Teacher the selection criteria was debated. There was an argument for the pupils to self-select, based on a volunteer system. This was rejected as there was no plan to fairly reduce the numbers to join the group if it proved popular, which by the fact that involved the police was likely. There were also no safe guarding plans to address deliberately challenging children who had no wider intention other than to disrupt the group dynamics. Another significant consideration was that the session was to be completed in their time, therefore, I was very much in the hands of the pupils who would volunteer. Whilst this is far from ideal in terms of gaining evidence from a broad section of children, I felt I had no choice.

I also had the difficult process of selecting the schools to take part. Like finding the sample of children, this was difficult. Whilst the schools were, in principal supportive, when it came to finding a teacher to facilitate the group, finding volunteers to give up their time and a class room, the options drastically reduced. I made the decision that it was best to go with the school that could provide a definite 'yes' with no caveats. I selected one school, which was the City school and I was able to run 3 sessions with different children in different years. The class sizes were small, ranging from 4 – 9 children. This field work has limitations as there was no spread across the 6 schools that are all demographically different. However, in mitigation I feel the sample of children represent the voice of children as opposed to the school or any demographics associated to the school.

The objective of the focus group was to get the views of children, I did not specify which children, and I will argue that there would be little difference between the children's views in separate schools as they would all look at the same package and they will all represent the perspective of a child receiving the programme.

The school agreed to use members of the school council or school voice group to form the sample cohort for the research. Rowe (1996) argued the size of the school council was crucial, suggesting that is important to achieve a balance between a small tightly focussed group and a larger body, whilst making the students feel valued. I selected this group to complete this new and exciting part of the research for a number of reasons. The first reason is that they are already an identified body of people who knew each other and accessible as an easily identified group.

Finally, I selected school governors as they are the body who are charged with the responsibility of holding the Head to account. They are generally consulted in a range of issues connected to the school including the safeguarding of children. Another probative value of using governors is that they are all member of the public and on most occasions have children either in the school being researched or another Hampshire School; I felt this would broaden the scope to beyond professionals but not too broad which I felt general parents would represent.

Conducting the research; ‘the doing’

Part of this research was conducted within the place of work of the researcher. Some consideration was given to the issue of being an insider researcher. Robson (2011) argued that there were some clear advantages and disadvantages of being an Insider researcher. The advantages included: having an intimate knowledge of context of the study, a strong grasp of the organisations politics and an understanding of how to approach people. The disadvantages with issues such as adding the research to the work role, being uncomfortable with colleagues and being able to remain objective (Robson, 2011 p:403). Whilst some ‘*demand characteristics*’ can be drawn here, in particular with the colleagues and hierarchy of the organisation, I felt this could be mitigated as cited in the ethics part of the study. The researcher only worked with part of the organisation, the wider part of the research was conducted outside of the researcher’s work place.

After the six schools had been selected, the next phase was to obtain access to the schools. This was a new area to the researcher and the people who had the power to grant access to the schools were unknown to me and my range of contacts were very limited. Advice was sought from the Hampshire Constabulary Education Advisor for the best route to obtain access. Appendix A presents the purposive sample of the research respondents.

I initially phoned all of the selected schools and had a pool of other schools to call as a reserve. I worked from a script to ensure complete corporacy between the schools of what I was seeking to achieve. A script was prepared to make the introductory phone call to each school. The response was not good to the initial round of calls with only two schools allowed me to progress to an appointment with a Head Teacher. I then moved to the wider pool schools on the list that also continued to fit into the selection criteria.

After lengthy negotiations I had appointments with all of the Head Teachers, which was their preferred route into the school. I made a presentation to each teacher in line with the ethical approval and my aims and objectives. In hind sight this was a long and bureaucratic process. Thereafter each Head Teacher granted me access to interview whichever staff member I felt was most appropriate. I also used this opportunity to seek permission to interview the school governors and, crucially, to have access to children as part of the objectives of the research in giving them a voice on the design content of the sessions. I had to use the Hampshire Constabulary Education Advisor as the single conduit to the schools, as the only successful route.

Each appointment with the Head Teacher was conducted within a school environment. The travel to the schools was a factor as although it had been considered in the design, it was more time consuming than had originally been planned, and in the case of the Isle of Wight, it was expensive.

A similar pattern of logistics followed with meeting the PSHE leads and governors. All of the appointments were completed during time off from work and involved a degree of travel.

Completing the focus groups: Children

Using focus groups with children is nothing new. Livingstone and Bober, (2003) used a focus group with children to research their experience using the internet. They used a similar selection method to this research and used the teachers to identify the children in my research. The setting up of the focus groups was arranged through the PSHE lead officer using the parameters set in the consultation with the sample Head Teacher. I left the school to make all of the focus arrangements as I felt they had greater understanding of the logistics whilst the school time table dictated the pace and time for the focus group. The PSHE teacher actually conducted the focus groups. The teacher was given a set of aims to cover and encouraged to allow the children to talk freely, feel confident and to be honest. I arranged for a police staff volunteer to be present in the back of the class to take any notes and to deal with any issues that were not covered in the initial briefing. I felt having the teacher to facilitate the session was ethically safer and I felt they would achieve a better outcome.

The sessions were completed during school time, but not at the detriment of the academic teaching. The sessions were completed as part of the PSHE curriculum timetable. The time set aside to complete the sessions were deliberately short and were around 20 minutes for the entire session.

The sessions were in the children's normal class room to keep them in their comfort zone and minimise the disruption to the class dynamics. The size of the groups was determined by the facilitator or the composition of the group, however, all involved were mindful of the academic thinking around focus group sizes. Morgan (1998) stated the size of a focus should be between 6 and 10 members whereas Bryman (2012) suggested that smaller groups, between 3 and 5 is more preferable in conflict with Steward and Shamdasani, (1999) who argued that the group size should be as high as 8 – 12. The group sizes did fall into the range suggested by Morgan (1998) between 6 and 10. I felt the size of the group was important as if it was too small the range in debate or content would be lacking whilst if it was too large the risk of over talking would be greater. I also felt the danger of having a large group is some members would not have a say whilst others may dominate the session, making it difficult to get an accurate and balanced account.

A key disadvantage of focus groups is the transcription and the issue of people talking over each other (Bryman, 2012). Although this consideration was mitigated by keeping the sessions very short, focused and led by the facilitator there was some minor over talking. The observer was able to take contemporaneous notes of the session and was able to pick out the places where there was over talking. The notes at this point were compared to the transcript and the detail was not lost.

As a Police Officer I felt it would be bring an additional layer of risk to complete this session myself as the children may not feel relaxed in my company, or some may wish to bring in unrelated issues to the session. Although a strategy of using someone other than the researcher in a focus group is far from ideal, I felt the overarching risk of it being completed by me was too high balanced against using a teacher that they knew.

As outlined above I set very clear objectives for the focus group that I briefed each PSHE teacher. I provided an explanation for the session and shared with the children the anonymity criteria. I paid particular attention to the wording. The wording was simple and I separated out any academic or adult language deliberately. I also piloted the questions on family members who were the same age as the focus group members. I also set a list of questions for the PSHE teacher to cover that served as the aims of the focus group:

Opening Explanation for the teacher

- Explain why this research is being done
- Explain that the names of each pupil is unknown to the researcher and will remain this way
- Anything that the children said would be recorded but the product would be kept secure by the researcher
- Ethical approval had been granted by Portsmouth University
- The Head Teacher and PSHE lead are aware and approve of the focus group

Questions for the focus group

- What do you think the lesson was about?
- Did you understand the words used in the lesson?
- Would you prefer if it was done another way, such as on the internet?
- What message did you take away from the lesson?
- What was good and what was not so good about the lesson?
- Was it helpful?

The sessions were quite simple to set up with the school taking the lead and making all of the necessary arrangements. The children were well organised, focused and took the role they were given seriously. As with focus group research there were a few occasions where the children were talking over each other but the class facilitator was able to manage this.

Insider/Outsider Researcher

When I conducted this research I considered the work of Brown (1996) who defines a researcher who works for the same organisation where the research is being conducted as an 'Inside insider' whereas a researcher, for example, who may be retired from the organisation and has returned to do research and combines this with their knowledge of the organisation are known as 'outside insiders'.

Conversely an outside insider is someone employed by an organisation to research the organisation on their behalf, similar to market research. Finally an Outside Outsider include external commentators such as academics or charities.

I performed the role of Insider/Insider and outside/outsider researcher with this study, a role compounded as I was also a senior officer in the same (policing) organisation. This was a key consideration for me and mitigated within the methods chapter. I felt my professional knowledge of the subject was sufficient to weigh the balance and complete the research myself.

However, the field work in the school (focus groups with children) was also a crucial consideration. I had the option to complete the research myself but felt that I would simply add a layer of distraction for the children, who may be tempted to ask me other questions other than the ones I had scripted, equally 'how would I handle any allegations raised'. This was a key consideration with any interaction with children on safeguarding topics as I have no prior knowledge of the children; some maybe victims of abuse at home and may use the opportunity of seeing a police officer as the right time to disclose or raise allegations against them, or what they may have witnessed. I chose to use a school teacher, who technically became an inside/insider on my behalf, which had advantages and recognised in Alderson and Morrow (2011) as they knew the children, with trust and rapport already gained.

Whilst the advantages were present, there were clear disadvantages as the teacher did not know the subject, was a little unclear on the objectives and simply relied on the scripted questions and could not deviate or deal with the subsequent questions from the children.

I did not take advantage of this method or fully appreciate the value and work required to make this work. The research in Alderson and Marrow, (2011) does clarify the advantages and risks of undertaking field work with children however, the learning I take away from this study is to have greater appreciation of the legislative and ethical issues that surround doing research with children whilst combining the insider and outsider model, prepare more time to plan with the teacher, give the teacher a summary of the objectives. I could have simply introduced myself as a researcher and spent more time to build rapport with the children. The wider learning and advice from this method is to be clearer with the school around what my objectives are, do not rely on the school or others to carry out the field work and remain within the frame work of an Outsider/outsider and be clear with the children of my role in the study and what is expected of them; in summary, complete the session myself. This is a method worth doing following ethical approval, but with caution as cited in this chapter.

Completing the focus group: Adults – School Governors

School Governors meet as a group on a regular basis as part of their governance duties. Meetings are often held with other members of the school leadership team and minutes are taken as a record of the meeting. My thoughts for using a focus group with this part of the investigation were directed towards harmonising the group dynamic which would incorporate different views from a wide range of life and education experience. Whilst individual interviews were an option I felt I would be able draw out the collective debate by allowing each governor to provide a view and challenge each others thinking. The risk of the strategy was that if there was no agreement amongst the governors I may not achieve the evidence I needed. I facilitated this session as the ethics present in children was not an issue with adults.

It was a straight forward process to arrange the focus groups. Appointments were made by the Head of PSHE and the Head Teacher. I kept to the same schools that I had engaged with for the interviews and children's focus groups. I had a very limited amount of time for the focus group as the Governors had a time tabled agenda to keep to and the appointments were in the evening. The time allocated was around 20 minutes, however, as the debate and probing was quite lively it often ran into 30 minutes.

I made a recording of each session for the same methodological reasons I gave for the children's session. I also made notes to ease the transcription and to help me keep a track on what was being said.

On reflection I approached this method too late in the research. I received ethical approval in June 2014 which did not give long to arrange and complete the sessions before the school summer holiday period. A time line would have been helpful.

I opened each session by thanking the group and read the aims and objectives of the research to ensure they were clear about what I was hoping to achieve. I adhered to the questions and probed only where it was necessary. They were difficult sessions to run, as I facilitated as well keeping notes and addressing any housekeeping issues. As a group they were happy to debate, had a lot to say and this proved to be a very valuable part of the research. The questions for the focus group were set to keep the session on track and crucially to elicit the most valuable evidence relevant to the research aims that were set at their strategic level and within a limited time.

Interviews with sample groups:

I spent some time considering making written notes of the interviews as opposed to recording, accepting that this offered some reliability weakness issues (Silverman, 2005). Having reflected on this approach I decided I would tape record the interviews. I did make notes at the time of the interview and kept the salient points which I felt would give me a flavour of the interviews and help with signposting the findings with other interviews which reflected the imitations on relying on a tape recorder.

As a serving police officer I can understand why some participants would be reluctant or even not comfortable for me to record the interview. I had a strategy to simply take verbatim notes of the interview; accepting the research validity issues attached to this.

I also had to take into account that some of the target group were police officers and police staff workers. I took into account the demand characteristics of the participants and the possibility of research bias, with some of the participants knowing they were in an experimental situation and know certain things will be expected or demanded of them (Strohmetz, 2008). This was a fundamental issue that required careful consideration. To overcome this issue, when faced with staff who were more junior in rank within my organisation, I emphasised that the research is separate from work and that they had to view me as a researcher and not a serving police officer.

The issue of research bias was also relevant with staff who previously knew me and I applied the same strategy to them as I did to junior staff.

Making the appointments with the non-police professionals was very difficult and time consuming. I had to seek the help from the Hampshire Constabulary Education Advisor to get access to the school teachers and the PSHE National, months of e mailing, phone calls and pre visits with Head Teachers to explain what I was trying to achieve. I did eventually fix appointments with the teachers and PSHE staff that I required.

The interviews with the Governors were also problematic. The only way I could access the Governors was through the teachers that I interviewed, some had an idea who would be good and others had to find out.

As with many access challenges, I had to be persistent with all of the teaching professionals and contact them a number of times to provide the details; which was not ideal. The actual interviews with the governors were very straight forward and presented no issues. Access to Hampshire Constabulary staff was easy as they are in the same organisation as the researcher. The interviews with non-police staff was conducted in the researchers own time, often on leave or in the evening. Interviews with police staff was arranged in lunch session or at the end of a working day.

Interviews with the Policing and Crime Commissioner and the PSHE staff was easy as direct contact could be made and the research was a subject they were all particularly interested in and supportive of the desire to bring new knowledge to the work place.

Designing the questions

The approach to the question design was largely based on writing semi structured questions (Bryman, 2012) intended to invite wider comments (Robson, 2011). I selected semi- structured interviews as opposed to structured or unstructured as I was interviewing key professionals, with an objective to open the debate as opposed to closing their responses down by asking set questions.

I wrote a number of questions based on the broad framework of the research objectives and piloted them with a number of people who were familiar with the research topic, but were not part of my data sample. The pilot sample had some knowledge of the research subject but not enough to add value to the research aims. I divided the questions into nine categories and frequently asked myself 'what do I hope to achieve by asking this question?' I connected each category to a place in the literature so I could be sure that there was relevance and direction to asking a question or the category of question.

Following the pilot, I selected a range of categories that I could link to the research outcomes. I placed the questions into nine categories as I felt this would allow additional flexibility to expand on parts of the research with some interviewees and move the order of questions with ease, a benefit of selecting semi structured interviews (Bryman, 2012). The questions were adapted slightly to accommodate the different professions, for example some were set from hands on delivery basis, some from an organisation head perspective and others as a more distant lay person, such as the school governors.

Having placed the questions into nine categories that linked to the overarching research objectives, to establish the new knowledge, I also linked each question (Appendix B) to academic research or policy from the literature to show the end to end connection.

I had to adapt the interviews slightly to meet the different professions expertise. The questions set were broadly designed for education and senior level staff. However, I did adapt some of the questions for the Police staff/officers who delivered the training to make the question more relevant to them. The alternative questions for the different professions are clearly set out in the interview schedule below.

Whilst designing the interview stage of the research I kept sight of the overall question of the research, as suggested in Rubin and Rubin, (1995, p.145) constantly asking 'why am I asking this question, what is the purpose of the question?' Oppenheim, (1992, p. 110). The design of the questions were placed into categories and then sub divided to obtain more detail, this was almost as a prompt as advised by Oppenheim, (1992, p: 6) and Robson (1993 P: 233).

Each question was open, starting with warm up questions as recommended in Patton (1990, p: 284) and Rubin and Rubin (1995, p. 146) then moving into more focused detailed questions that are grounded in the lives of the respondents, it is their reality not that of the researcher. As recommended in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) I linked the aims of the research to the questions and ensured I remained focused on what I was trying to measure or establish.

The questions were divided into eight categories, that included factual and exploratory themes, Oppenheim, (1992, p: 67) and Robson, (1993, p: 42). Each category correlated to the question in sequential order, with probes set against each category. The questions were, in the main open questions that allowed the respondents to answer with no restrictions as suggested by (Kerlinger (1970). Open questions invite a wider response and allow the researcher the opportunity probe in greater detail. Closed questions are appropriate for factual detail but make it difficult to elicit more information. Figure 5.2 below represents the question categories and Appendix B is the questions used in the interviews with the respondents. The questions are also formed from the literature review and the connection is made in Appendix B.

Question category	Underlying objective
The programmes	Establish what programmes are being delivered by the police and identify more detail
The Design	Who designs the programmes. How are they designed and why.
The Children Citizen voice	To establish whether children are involved with the design
Evaluation	The extent the programmes are evaluated
Costs	What is the cost and who pays for the programmes
Teacher/trainer	Identify who delivers the police programmes and why
Collaboration	To what extent do the police and education collaborate and whether they can in the future
Government policy	To what extent is this known and understood
The future structure	How can the police and education work together in the delivery of PSHE programmes

Fig 5:2 Categories of questions

Questions for key stakeholders of the Review of Schools Programmes

On reflection and having drafted and piloted the questions I felt I needed a separate set of supplementary questions that would address the internal review of the school engagement programmes. I felt the questions designed for the wider sample would not cover the review in any depth and it would not include the thinking of key people involved in this subject. I have singled out two people for this amended question schedule. This sample was: The author of the review and the Policing Commissioner. The author of the pre review programmes and the senior officer for schools engagement were asked questions from the main body of the questions, but I did add a supplementary schedule of questions taken from the bespoke questions in line with the review. I had to take care in the design of these questions to ensure the questions were focused on the internal thought processes of the police and how they envisioned how the programmes would delivered. I wanted to separate this from the education sector, PSHE and the police officers who delivered the training as they have little influence on the strategic direction of the police and the Policing Commissioner.

I had to separate the questions of the original Education Advisor from the other sample subjects. The Education Advisor can only comment on the programmes before the review but was able to offer qualified evidence on the direction of the programmes.

Transcribing the Interviews

This proved to be a very time consuming and difficult phase of the research and although it was anticipated from both the literature review and by listening to the advice of professionals, the actual magnitude of the time needed far exceeded my expectations, a point shared in Bryman (2008, p. 456). I had a range of options of how to transcribe the interviews. I considered sending the transcripts to a professional service for transcription however this was simply cost prohibitive. I considered hiring an administration staff member from work and agreeing a private fee set at an hourly rate, however, although this was by far a cheaper option, it still attracted a cost that was too high and having discussed the possibility with the staff member they felt finding the time outside of work hours would be a challenge.

I chose to transcribe the interviews myself, which although time consuming, had the advantage of having first-hand knowledge of the interview, how the interviewee came across and I was able to make excellent use of the salient points, which helped in finding the places which held the most relevance without losing other words or points which were of equal value. This also assisted in the data analysis of the information as set out in the next section.

I also had to transcribe interviews that were conducted in long hand as some the participants were not comfortable to be tape recorded, a possible reason for this was that I was police officer and senior to some of the police respondents; I cannot say for sure as this was never explored. This was also time consuming and difficult. As I had to write quickly there were places where I could not read my notes or the context did not make sense. Whilst this did not affect the broad findings, I cannot state that each record was a verbatim record. Appendix C lists the supplementary questions used for the Review Lead Officer and Police and Crime Commissioner, and Appendix D shows the questions posed to the School Governors.

Approach to the Analysis

A total of 21 people were interviewed, 2 focus groups of adults and 3 of children were used in this research as outlined in a previous section. There was 1 interview with a finance expert to cover the bespoke question around finance. My original strategy to analyse the data was to use a computer aided software package NVIVO. The software is designed for qualitative research analysis (Robson, 2011) and seemed at the time to be a time saving sensible approach. I downloaded the programme and started to work within the rules of the programme. However, I found the software difficult to navigate, it was not always working and I was lost in the data. I did seek excellent advice and help, but simply found the software too difficult to work with and I had to travel to the university site to use it. I made the decision to manually code the data. This was a time consuming and was a monotonous task.

I read each transcript several times, ensuring that I was familiar with the content. This was approached within a content analysis strategy. Barelson (1952 p. 18) defined content analysis as '*objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of a communication*' whereas Holsti 1969 p. 14) provided a similar definition '*objectively, systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages.*'

Arguably both definitions are very similar and mirror exactly what I did with the transcripts. As I systematically went through each question line by line I continually asked myself what am I hoping to achieve from this question and what is the data telling me? Also learning from my NVIRO experience I was particularly careful not to be lost in the data or lose focus of my objectives. However, this should not be confused with me not being alive to following what the data was saying rather than following what I want or hope the data to say. Having analysed the content of the data I started to make a list of the words that emerged most frequently. I set up an excel spreadsheet as outline in Figure 9. I concluded with a list of 27 words. I described these words as codes.

Coding is a well-practiced qualitative research approach, Bryman (2012) went on to argue that unstructured material must be categorised and researchers must then assign numbers to the categories that have been created. Codes are the tools to grounded theory which according to Bryman (2012) underpins qualitative analysis. Grounded theory is about a set of procedures (Glasser and Strauss (1999 p. 576) and the building blocks from the labels derived from the data. According to Charmaz (1982 p. 186) *'codes serve as a shorthand device to label, separate, compile and organise data'*. Strauss and Corbin (1990) argued that coding yields the concepts that are later grouped and turned into categories.

I decided to take the route of thematic coding with the data or codes that I had discovered. Thematic coding analysis, although not tightly defined, according to Robson (2011) is a generic approach to the analysis of qualitative data where the coding is followed by grouping the initial codes into smaller numbers or themes. I found that this definition matched what I was doing. In essence, I have grouped a number of codes, based on the frequency matrix, and then grouped these into smaller categories which I have called themes. The themes, or outcome of the thematic coding was based, again, on the frequency of the codes and how they linked to research questions. Whilst frequency is a strong indicator of data that is evidential, it is the grouping of the data that has relevance, evidence and value to the research objectives that is key. A number of interesting themes emerged from the coding. I placed these into 7 themes that dealt with specific themes connected to the research question.

'There was a point when I was content that there was no more text that I could allocate to a code, this was the point of saturation' (Robson, 2011).

When I reached the point of saturation I simply did not add any more detail to the code as it was not offering any more value.

In summary the stages I went through to achieve the analysis were as follows:

- Read and re – read each transcript several times to get a feel for the data and make notes on the parts that may be of interest
- I went through each transcript, line by line, and counted the frequency of the codes
- I then drew up an excel spread sheet and numerically recorded the codes
- I then drew up a second excel spread sheet to illustrate the relationship between the codes and transcripts
- Then reduced the number of codes from 27 codes into (7) themes using a thematic coding process

The data arises from the evidential qualitative sample. I kept the quotes as they represent the personal views and expression of the feelings taken from the purposeful sample. The quotes are balanced whilst providing a unique feel to the research from such a professional sample group. The quotes arise from a combination of senior leaders, practitioners, focus groups (children and governors), local authority, government representatives and technical experts (finance). I have made it clear where a bespoke expert has made a point on an issue. The overriding strength of the research is the close connection each respondent has with the subject, albeit from different perspectives.

The initial coding stage produced twenty-seven areas of interest, illustrated in figure 9. I reached this number from repeatedly reading each transcript, finding the most commonly used words and then compared this with the transcripts and how this related to the question being asked. I was able to find patterns that had direct correlation with the question or evidence being sought. I was able to cluster the codes into smaller codes which again directly linked into the question.

There were clusters where the codes were able to fit into one theme, for example, assembly was a strong code, but in isolation means very little but when connected to the wider questions it sits within the 'session delivery theme'. Other codes were strong but had little or no connection to other parts of the questions as they were related directly to an evidential point or discussion issue. An example of this was 'pay – buy in the service'. This has no relevance to how the 'session delivery' theme, but has evidence around collaboration and recommendations for a future framework.

I framed the themes around the analysis, for example 'delivery' was related to nine codes, some strong some less so. The themes are representative of the overall research question and the contextual framework which they sit. I divided the analysis into the themes and provided commentary to each theme, whilst referring to the wider literature, both academic and policy, to help support the evidence being presented.

My Final stage in the thematic coding was to cluster themes around their similarity as opposed to frequency. An example of this was to cluster themes that had a similar meaning such as 'session, delivery, groups, Assembly and curriculum could all come under the 'How they are delivered theme' as essentially they are examining component parts of one subject question or area.

The next section will go through each theme as clusters in the order of how they were investigated alongside the interview strategy. My rationale for how the clusters were devised:

- My professional judgement and knowledge with the subject matter. Qualified teacher and practising police officer.
- The literature that has been reviewed.
- An examination of how the data contributed towards the codes as the findings can only be based on what the data is telling the researcher.

Research Limitations

There were some limitations that have affected the outcome of this study. The sample size of the study was small, when set into the context the broad size of education and policing. However, to mitigate this, I have argued that the selection of the purposeful sample was considered and by nature of their profession, connection to the programmes or their wider strategic role, made the actual volume of numbers in the sample less an issue. The number of schools was low (six) however, there was healthy balance between school type and location. I made the schools as varied as possible taking in the demographic difference.

The focus group with the children was not as fruitful as I had hoped. Whilst they were a challenge and the points they actually raise were valuable and did contribute to the study, I felt this was a missed opportunity. In hindsight I should have taken a closer and more 'hands on' approach as opposed to setting the questions and allowing the teaching staff to facilitate the session. I am not convinced this altered the outcome of the study, but it did not add further weight to elements of the research. I hoped to have used both cities in the school sites, but I was unable to gain access to one of the cities. This was more a case of simply not being granted access to the local authority and their overall commitment to working with the local police.

On reflection I would have liked to examine the value of the programmes but there was not enough scope in the study to make this possible. I feel that the value of the programmes is everything, but as the literature has demonstrated, the lack of any measurement in terms of value is nothing new, but the thirst to establish in future research would be prudent.

This chapter provided a detailed scope of the methods and why a qualitative interview strategy was used to achieve the findings. The chapter provided a note on the literature making the point that this subject is not widely researched, but a hybrid of academic and legislative government reports were relied up. The sample was taken from key professionals who either had a sound professional knowledge of a very specific subject or key decision makers on safeguarding or education. The sample of schools was broad to take in all catchment variations. Whilst focus groups with children was completed, it did not yield the quality of evidence I was hoping for.

The methods chapter provided a detailed rationale as an approach to the analysis, much like finding a paradigm, this was key as it provided commentary as what strategy was used to analysis the findings. The ethical considerations were presented together with the limitations, presented as in the main, limited available research and the conflict between the team who delivered the programmes before the 2014/5 review and those who created the post review strategy.

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS

Secondary data: Hampshire and the Isle of Wight: The site of the research

This chapter presents the findings of the research and the analysis used to achieve the findings. This chapter includes the outcome of the investigation into what data exists within Hampshire Constabulary (objective 1) that is in line part of the objectives and was used to help provide an understanding of the journey Hampshire Police have been on with this issue and what has been undertaken to progress this. The data presented is secondary data and comprises of demographic education data, Policing and Crime Commissioner Plans, Review and Post Review of Hampshire Constabulary education programmes and lesson content/delivery methods of how Hampshire Constabulary delivered school based programmes before the schools review.

This is a useful point to re-visit the objectives set out at the beginning of this study.

Aim: *To examine the extent of cohesive interagency arrangements between the police and education in school based safeguarding programmes, with a view to exposing implications of future practice.*

Objective 1: *To critically investigate the role of the police and schools engage to deliver school based safeguarding programmes within Hampshire and the Isle of Wight.*

Objective 2: *To investigate and critically assess the role of the Police as an external speaker in the delivery of school safeguarding programmes in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight schools.*

Objective 3: *To identify implications for practice in relation to the role of the police in school safeguarding programmes in Hampshire and Isle of Wight for Police and Education to consider.*

As noted in the introduction Hampshire and the Isle of Wight were selected as the site to be researched. Whilst there could be an argument to place this part of the research as a case study, it is simply not examined in sufficient detail or been subject to research conditions to satisfy calling this a case study. However, it sits more comfortably describing this as the site of the study. The research will now look at what Hampshire Constabulary has done, the work of the Policing and Crime Commissioner, and how they were conducting school based education programmes at the time of the research.

The Hampshire and Isle of Wight school demographic profile is based on the local authority structure. The local authorities are structured between 3 unitary authorities: (1) Portsmouth, (2) Southampton and the (3) Isle of Wight. There is one single authority as Hampshire County Council which covers the remainder of the county.

	Nursery/Infant Junior/Primary	Secondary	College	University	Special	Total
Hampshire	455	97	14	2	37	605
Isle of Wight	42	10	1	0	3	56
Portsmouth	55	14	2	1	5	77
Southampton	62	16	1	2	8	89
Total	605	137	18	5	53	827

Figure 6:1 Total Schools, Colleges and Universities in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight (Schools web directory 2014)

Hampshire Constabulary has 2,700 Police Officers and 1,700 staff. It is currently undergoing significant structural change to meet the financial challenges set by the coalition government under the Comprehensive Spending Review (CSR) 2010. The staff numbers may well reduce over the next 5 years to meet the new Comprehensive Savings Review (2010) target. It is helpful to place the challenging financial position Hampshire Constabulary is in within the wider context of this study, as the discussion chapter of the research explores various financial considerations in the future recommendations of the study. Hampshire Constabulary is structured in a similar way the education authorities with local commanders being co-terminus with the Unitary authorities and Hampshire County Council.

In terms of relevance to this study Hampshire Constabulary has previously delivered school based joint programmes with their education partners. It has also been on a journey where the programme 'getting it right' launched in 1996 was stopped by the force some years later. The education and parts of the SSP programme does appear in pockets of the force in ad hoc sites, but with no governance or direction, a point previously cited by Crick, (1998), who commented on PSHE education in general and not specifically to Hampshire and the Isle of Wight.

Pontin (2006) reported that Hampshire Constabulary examined the DARE programme and translated this into a model of their own. Hampshire Constabulary called their programme 'getting it right' (Keene and Williams, (1996). The programme also set an aim and objectives:

Aim: To provide primary school children with the right skills to look after themselves and keep themselves safe:

- Objectives: To reduce crime
- To reduce substance misuse
- To help children keep safe

Pontin (1996) reported that the programme was confined to Hampshire Constabulary and had a combination of classroom teachers and 20 full time police officers. The Police Officers were called 'School Liaison' officers (p:23) and were shared amongst 35 schools. The programmes were fully supported by the teachers who would reinforce messages between police visits.

Keene and Williams (1996) argued that the Hampshire programme was less drug focused than the DARE programme, but had an emphasis on crime, safety and improving relationships between the police and the children. On critical reflection of the 'getting it right' programme a number of issues emerge.

The outcomes are police focused, however, they were also visionary as they explored keeping children safe long before the Every Child Matters (2004) report. However, conversely the outcomes mention reducing crime, which as this research has found in the literature, has yet to be proved by any education programme and therefore cannot be an achievable measurement.

There was an evaluation of the 'Getting it Right' programme by the Department of Education, who were complimentary of the programme, but did question whether behaviour, attitudes, skills and understanding could be influenced within the limited scope of the intervention; the point made in the literature examination. A key feature identified in the examination of the Getting it Right programme was made in Pontin (1996 P: 36) *'People who develop the schools programmes should be in tune with youth culture and can use positive role models'* This is an important point that will feature and shape part of this research.

Hampshire Constabulary no longer delivers or uses all or any part of the Getting it Right programme and is unable to provide school liaison officers. However, they do have an ad hoc arrangement with some schools where the partnership is in two parts. SSP in the schools, shared in the spirit of the SSP, but some also deliver education programmes in schools in a similar style to the AWSLAC. Hampshire Constabulary has no policy or strategy to provide any governance or corporacy in this subject.

Hampshire Constabulary conducted a full review of the way it engages with schools. The review will also form part of the wider research findings. This is an important part of research as it reflects the direction of Hampshire Constabulary towards schools engagement at the same time, almost in parallel but separate from this research.

Hampshire and the Isle of Wight Police and Crime Commissioners Plan

The coalition government introduced the Police and Crime Commissioners to replace the Police Authorities in England and Wales within the Police Reform and Social Responsibility Act 2011. This involved a national election in November 2012. Simon Hayes, an independent candidate was elected for Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. At the time of completing this work a new PCC had just been elected, his plan has not been available to consider within the context of this research.

Following the 'Getting it Right' campaign (Pontin, 1996 p. 9) the schools engagement and education focus '*went cold*' in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. There is no available literature, or any internal documents to suggest that Hampshire Constabulary has progressed the 'getting it right' policy or has any other safer schools partnership strategy.

However, the Police and Crime Commissioner, did allude to the youth agenda in his (PPC plan, 2013 – 2017,).The plan is divided into 4 priorities:

- Priority 1: Improve front line policing to deter criminals and keep communities' safe
- Priority 2: Place victims and witnesses at the heart of policing and the CJS
- Priority 3: Work together to reduce crime and anti-social behaviour
- Priority 4: Reduce re – offending

An initial analysis of this plan, technically, places this research with all of the priorities. To explain this, it is focused on joint working and reducing crime and anti-social behaviour. Whilst it can be suggested that it is healthy for a PCC to set stretching and organisationally different targets, it is indicative that this agenda is inclusive of other partners outside of the Hampshire Constabulary. The priorities link with the research, as each one has a connection to safeguarding young people and partnerships.

Hampshire Constabulary does not have a strategy or a plan on the wider school partnership. There is no evidence to explain why. However, the PCC had commissioned a review of school based programmes at the time of this study which may address this organisational gap. Commissioning the review does show the strategic intent and support the PCC has for this issue.

However, despite having no strategy or plan Hampshire Constabulary does have a scheme of school programmes delivered by the police in local schools. Hampshire Constabulary does work with the local schools within the PSHE curriculum. This study will critique this relationship within the discussion chapter. This is the very point that runs to the heart of this research, Hampshire Constabulary staff deliver a range of ad hoc programmes to schools that have no governance or strategic oversight by either the Police or education.

Although the PCC does mention safeguarding and education in the Policing Commissioners Plan '*I will hold exercise my duty and hold the Chief Constable to account in relation to the safeguarding of children through better education and communication*'(p; 9), it does not go into any detail as to the collaborative arrangements, quality of the programmes, evaluation or even how they should be delivered in Hampshire and Isle of Wight. What is clear is that Hampshire Constabulary had delivered school based programmes long before the Police and Crime Commissioners Plan (2013 – 2017).

Pre – 2014/15 review: What Hampshire Constabulary delivered to schools in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight.

The first objective of this research was to investigate how the police engage with education to safeguard children in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight through programmes of class room based education. Working towards achieving this objective, an examination was made of how Hampshire Constabulary carried out PSHE school based programmes leading up to the review commissioned by the PCC for school based education, undertaken in 2014/15 and at the time of this research. This examination will show how and what programmes were delivered. This will provide some context as to where Hampshire Constabulary, as an organisation, were at the time of the research in their management of this issue.

Hampshire Constabulary currently deliver a number of school based programmes in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. Although the delivery of the programmes, set out below, were put on hold at the time of the research whilst the overarching internal review of Schools Engagement was being undertaken, it is helpful to show how the programmes were delivered to partially meet the first research objective. The sessions were delivered to around 37,000 children in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. The sessions were delivered in a range of ways including assembly presentations, small tutor groups or as a targeted discussion group following an assembly delivery. The delivery of the subjects in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight will be discussed in greater depth later.

The teaching style was largely didactic when they were presented to large school assemblies. They also delivered the sessions to small tutor groups, in a discussion based setting. Learning aids such as power point, video clips and other web based visual imagery were used. The method of delivery will be explored in the findings chapter of this research.

The programmes that Hampshire Constabulary delivered before the 2014/15 review are noted below. This is a summary of the lesson content, what it set out to achieve and who it was delivered to. In the majority of cases, the method of delivery was at the school assembly, a point discussed later in the study (chapter eight).

Personal Internet and Cyber Safety (PICS): Delivered in both primary and secondary schools across Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. The package examines in general terms all aspects of computer and mobile phone crime including internet use, cyber bullying, misuse of social network sites (face book) identity fraud and hacking into computers. It is designed to provide guidance on how to stay safe on life online, and what the police will do if someone is the victim of on line crime. The lesson objectives are to raise awareness of the potential dangers of cyber and internet crime. The lessons used video scenarios to achieve this.

Staying Safe: Delivered in secondary schools. This has reached 37,000 children. The package relates to non-consensual sex, the dangers of mixing alcohol and/or drugs prior to a sexual encounter, and need for clarity for consent. It looks at the legal consequences for allegation of rape and the police procedure.

It briefly discusses the other serious sexual offences, but is primarily concerned with the crime of rape. It provides general advice to young people regarding ways to stay safe when out at night. The students were sign posted to website and help lines. Health warnings are provided throughout the programme at appropriate points. Interestingly this programme is not delivered in Portsmouth, they have similar inputs delivered by a voluntary organisation called PARCS.

Firearms and Knife Education (FAKE). This package is split into firearms information and the knife information and is delivered as a shorter half hour presentation focusing on either of both. The package uses video clips and interactive exercises, the audience are made aware of the dangers of carrying a weapon, the police procedure for dealing with weapons, and the short and long term consequences of being convicted of carrying or having a weapon either with or without the intention of committing other crimes.

Anti – Social Behaviour: This raises the awareness of ASB, and through the use of video clips which challenges the perception that ASB is harmless. It features the case of Fiona Pilkington and her daughter (both took their life following being the victim of long term ASB in Leicestershire). It also covers the consequences of ASB and the powers authorities have to deal with ASB.

Alcohol Awareness: This presentation defines alcohol types and strengths and considers the health and social problems that alcohol addiction can cause. It clarifies the law regarding alcohol consumption, looks at binge drinking and the dangerous consequences. Family strain and the increase of young people's long term drinking habits are discussed. Help is also signposted for the young people.

There were a number of programmes found during this study, such as homophobic bullying and drugs, which appeared to have been subject to a bespoke design for a particular school or catchment area. This was based on a need basis, for example if school 'A' has problem with drugs or homophobic bullying they could seek help from the police to deliver programmes that meet the local need for that school. These ad hoc programmes are simply not governed or aligned to any process around who should or should not deliver the programmes.

Whilst this is sensible way forward, the programmes lack any corporate messages, fail to be evaluated and were designed by the people who delivered the programmes.

The programmes were managed by Hampshire Constabulary Learning and Development department, however whilst this department retained the corporate responsibility of the programmes, the actual delivery and design of the programmes was sole role of a Police volunteer. The programmes were designed to emphasise the consequence of crime or placing yourself in a vulnerable position whilst making a clear reference to the law and the role of police. All of the programmes are designed to raise student awareness of life issues as opposed to trying to change attitudes and beliefs. The lesson plans were corporate and delivered the same message to each school. There is no facility for any class room work or discussions, due in the main to the delivery was to a year group during an assembly which is generally in large numbers.

Each programme had a 'reactionary' evaluation after each session. These evaluation sheets are entered into a computer but no further evaluation takes place. The programme design is discussed later in the research. There is nothing to suggest that the investment to deliver the programmes actually make any difference, similar with the US DARE programmes.

The programmes were physically delivered in the schools by a range of staff that included Police Community Support Officers (PCSO, Police Officers and in the main the Police Staff volunteer. With the exception of the Police Staff volunteer, who is a qualified teacher, the staff have no teacher or training qualifications.

Some of the lesson plans were interactive and made use of visual aids as opposed a didactic class room input. There was some opportunity for questions and answers, however, some staff members who deliver the lessons are more equipped than others to handle this part of the session. There was no real rigour to evaluate the effectiveness of the programmes or any cost benefit realisation exercise. There was no strategy or plan around the programmes and no evidence that the police and education were joined up or collaborated; however, they clearly worked together but nothing was evident in the internal documents reviewed.

The review of Schools based education programmes by Hampshire Police (2013/14)

The Policing and Crime Commissioner together with the Head of Public Services commissioned a review of how Hampshire Police worked with schools, the review included schools based education delivery. This examination will feature in the research as the person who conducted the review was interviewed.

The review had the potential to distract this research off course. The subject being reviewed was in essence very similar to the objectives of this research. However, I made the decision to continue with the research in isolation of the review. My rationale was that this research can offer some sound evidence base for any recommendations that the review will make. Further I felt it would be interesting to compare the two investigations and provide some critical analysis. This is an excellent baseline to reach the first objective of the research. This strategy attracts some ethical issues to overcome. As reported in the ethics section and within the ethical submission, my research may highlight some failings in the organisation and also in the review. This is simply around how the organisation had no policy, governance or evidence base to any related decision making; making any subsequent decisions vulnerable from an organisational perspective. The ethical issues have been mitigated against with the Senior Police Officer who commissioned the review. This was also recorded in the ethics section of this research.

Permission has been approved to investigate the review with the overarching desire to build upon and improve the review and to provide some evidence base to rely upon when making organisational change.

The review by Hampshire Constabulary commenced in August 2013 and concluded in March 2014. The methodology used in the review semi - structured interviews, questionnaire surveys, various meetings and visits to other forces delivering similar products. A key outcome of the review, that will serve as a key feature of this study within the discussion and concluding comments, is the withdrawal of Police Officers from the class based programmes. The review recommends that the police write the programmes but the delivery is now web based.

What Hampshire Constabulary currently deliver in Hampshire and Isle of Wight Schools.

Hampshire Constabulary have not withdrawn officers from their school engagement work, but have changed the way they deliver safeguarding programmes. They have replaced face to face deliveries with an on line resource. This is free to all Hampshire and Isle of Wight schools, both primary and secondary. The programmes have been developed in partnership with teachers, experts, guidance from the National PSHE association. It has an overall aim to support teachers and professionals to help young people develop a basic level of knowledge and understanding to enable them to be risk aware, make healthy informed choices and stay safe.

The programme provides both primary and secondary as well as sections age relevant topics and materials as an on line tool kit. This can be tailored and adapted to meet individual need. Each tool kit comprises of a consistent framework as set out below:

- 4 key Aims and Learning Outcomes
- Getting Started (base knowledge)
- Core Learning Activities (meets key aims)
- Signposting to Support
- Finishing Up (capture learning)
- Home learning Options (expand learning)
- Parent Advice and Information
- Useful links and Resources

The measure of its effectiveness is through a feedback site which can be accessed through the tool kit site and invites respondents to complete an on line questionnaire about the learning and delivery usefulness.

In this chapter the results of the analysis of the interview data are presented with a focus on what is being said and illustrating the emerging themes from the data. There will be commentary on the analysis of the data that will place the evidence within the contextual framework of the research aims and objectives.

This is a crucial part of the study. The data gathered through the investigation is drawn together and methodically examined in context with the literature and secondary data. The methods chapter has delineated how the findings were approached, however this chapter brings to life what was found and leads onto what it means in the wider context of the study in the discussion chapter (chapter 8).

This chapter has approached each question as a separate enquiry amongst a wider investigation. Whilst there are overlaps, there is also a place to view each category in isolation, for example, the physical delivery of a programme by a police officer has a different impact on an organisation than the how they are physically delivered.

However, there are overlaps, in the main around the cost of the delivery and what the future could look like following the outcome of the research. The discussion chapter (chapter 8) and the conclusion chapter (chapter 9) expand further on the analysis, making the overlap connection clear and articulates what the implications are for the professionals.

The finding are presented in a category list as they were addressed during the question clusters. The reason for this is to break down into parts that are, in themselves, a stand-alone findings. Each part is signposted and is made up of powerful narratives provided by the professionals and some contextual commentary. The findings start with how the delivery of the sessions of delivered.

Delivery of the session:

The delivery of the session by either a police officer, teacher or hybrid of both, was a key and important finding from the data that will shape the outcome of this research. Every school based programme has to be delivered somehow, however, the method of delivery and by whom is key. The data illustrate an interesting debate around who should deliver the programmes and how.

Both the Police and Education services are making adjustments to their service which have to be aligned to the Comprehensive Spending Review set by the government. It is clear that both professions have to operate differently and some have to either stop or change. The placing of Police Officers and PCSO's into schools to carry out a specific function of delivering safeguarding programmes is an expensive outlay, equally education would question the value of the programmes and the associated costs to the education budget. Whilst the research shows that there is a justifiable need for something to be done around safeguarding children, the issue is who and how should this be delivered.

An honest view from a teacher as to who should deliver the programmes within a learning context and how this affects the police was considered, whilst not all of the teaching staff, it was, in the main a shared view.

'I think it is good that the police deliver the programmes, I think it is better it is not someone from the school. To be honest the children think we don't have a clue. It is the impact on the children and the message you want to give, it is the impact the person has on the children as they leave the session. Guest speakers leave a lasting impression on the children' (T2)

Whilst serving police officers had a similar view but taken from a slightly different position or rationale.

'If it is an impactive subject it should be delivered by the police officers, we can deal with the 'what if' questions' (T16)

However, there was a number of ways in which the Police Officer should be present in the delivery. Nourse (1995) supports the view that guest speakers add value to the session, I will argue that a police officer is a guest speaker as they are not teachers or members of the school staff and where a uniform that clearly shows they are Police Officers to the children. Just over half of the respondents found that the Police Officer as a sole guest speaker was the ideal model. Whilst a small minority reported that a hybrid of police officer and a teacher was the preferred model.

This response did not really break down between police officer –Police and Community Support Officer or even a police staff member in plain clothes. Whilst **T3** did distinguish between in the evidence, the working assumption is that they are an external speaker in uniform.

'There are real positives with Police/PCSO delivering the programmes, but the reality is that the review of the programmes found it was inconsistent, some were good and some were not so good. The approach did not match the learning style, it was very didactic, but the officers were better than the PCSO's. If money was no object we would have bespoke teams as the ideal delivery is face to face; but we don't have the money hence having to do this differently. (T10)

The respondents did comment on the break down between a hybrid model by reporting that both should have equal role of the students focus group (**TFG5**) felt it was the teacher's role to carry out the smaller group discussion work, whilst (**TFG 3 and 4**). A large majority felt that this was a function for the police. 100% of the school governors stated this was a role for the police.

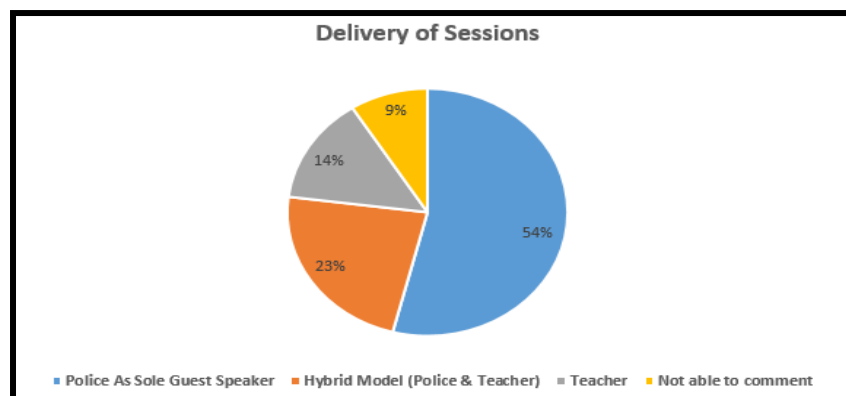


Figure 6.2 Delivery of Sessions

A small number of the respondents suggested that it was the role of teachers to deliver the programmes alone. Interestingly, a large section of teaching staff felt this was the role of the police whilst some felt this should be a hybrid model of delivery.

'The programmes should be delivered in the main by class teachers, but supplemented where possible by visitors such as the police. The kids love it, it is brilliant when the police come in, the younger the better' (T9)

Over half of the respondents felt that there was no requirement for the external speaker to have a recognised teaching qualification, however, a smaller number the respondents felt that the external speaker should have some presentation skills or training.

'Do not need a PGCE, but would benefit from some presentation skills' (T17)

A small number reported that the presenter should have life skills. Whilst the level of qualification made little or no difference, it was more about the person, the passion and subject knowledge that mattered and were credible to the audience, by knowing their subject and in this study, part of the profession.

'They should have credibility not qualifications' (T3)

This is an interesting point to debate as to whether this is an educational package, information awareness session or a hybrid of the two.

'I am not convinced anyone needs the formal qualifications, it is more about the skills and the personality. Some teachers, not all, have the training and skills to do this subject, I guess you could say that for the police, but my experience is that they are not the right profession to do this.' (T1)

During the focus group with the school governors 100% stated that the delivery of the programmes was police business, but accepted the teaching staff can enhance the final delivery.

'I prefer the joined up approach of teachers and police doing this together. It is about the sustainability they need to work together; it is about modelling working in partnership. The children simply love people coming in, they respond to this.' (T6)

There was an interesting outcome from the children's focus as 100% of the focus groups reported that liked the teacher to be present when the programmes were being delivered.

Senior police officers, senior teachers, and the respondents would have commissioned and carried out the schools review stated that teachers should deliver the programmes on their own, with an acceptance that joint deliveries were fine.

'I am adamant and passionate that delivering school based programmes in schools is not the business for police officers or PCSO's, we do not have the capacity to do this, we need to be more focused on proper school engagement and problem areas and issues, there is not enough of us to go around, but if we are targeted we can be effective. I do accept in an ideal world a joint venture would be great, but it is the 'how' for me' (T13)

They made mention to public sector cuts, which some of the practitioners may not be so focused on. The Senior Police leaders felt this was not the role of the police, with particular regard to the post cuts implementation phase.

'I absolutely feel these programmes should not be delivered by police officers' (T12)

Practitioners, both police and teachers, felt the delivery of the programmes should be delivered by the police whether PC or PCSO. This is a key point as it is a focal part of the study, however, they did give different reasons why this was the best approach. However, this was not the view of a police officer who was an authority on the subject and had a strong strategic position on this question.

'There are real positives with Police/PCSO delivering the programmes, but the reality is that the review of the programmes found it was inconsistent, some were good and some were not so good. The approach did not match the learning style, it was very didactic, but the officers were better than the PCSO's. If money was no object we would have bespoke teams as the ideal delivery is face to face; but we don't have the money hence having to do this differently. (T10)

This was a very unique, but well placed view. This response introduced funding as a rationale for the role of the police with the programmes. It suggests the police simply do not have the money to complete this function in its current delivery style, but did not explain any great financial thoughts. Whilst the response was against the PC/PCSO doing this role, it also recognised that this was a preferred model.

There was universal agreement that the programmes should be delivered by someone who had the ability to deliver the programme as some of the subjects were sensitive. The issue of guest speakers was also quite clear, with all of the respondents stating that guest speakers were *'impactive'* and the *'best way forward'*.

However, the balance was how could this be achieved and sustained within an austerity era. There was and is a role for teachers, in particular with the technical education issues and the 'push pull' factor around whose role it actually was.

'I don't think police officers should give any educational input, they are not qualified. With the cuts I cannot see this happening – we cannot do it. If we do go down this route, then it must be with a teacher which is fine to support the teachers and answer the technical questions' (T13)

The comment raised by T3 around the question of whether wearing the uniform made the difference, both people who delivered the same programme, albeit to different audiences, worked for the police, one was in uniform whilst the other was not. The respondent was unable to expand any further on this point but rather ask the question whether the uniform made the difference. Drawing on the research around guest speakers, a case could be made that the uniform is the single point that makes the difference, however there is no evidence to prove this point in this study.

'These sessions should be delivered by the police. I would like to know what the reaction would be if the police officer was in plain clothes' (T3)

This point was made by a senior teacher to illustrate the point that whilst having an external speaker was the preferred style, he could not say whether it was the uniform that made the difference or just the fact that it was a 'stranger' giving the talk. This is an interesting point, but this research did not take this any further, but rather make the assumption that the external speaker can be easily identified as a member of their organisation, whether that is by wearing a uniform or being introduced as such.

How should the programmes be delivered?

The school day works around a timetable that is aligned to an academic curriculum. Safeguarding of children subjects are covered within the PSHE or citizenship part of the curriculum with some variation around the time allocated and the method of delivery.

The research looked at how the subjects were delivered to find a consistent or ideal model to deliver the programmes. Like the previous question, the responses largely depended on the role of the respondent; the practitioners and senior managers provided different responses. The questions tried to establish whether large presentations were any more effective than smaller class based deliveries. The question also examined whether the subjects featured in the curriculum and what was the time allocated. This is a relevant point as, like any target driven public sector service, there will be competition for time table time.

The majority of the practitioners stated that the sessions are delivered during the school assembly, whilst a small minority stated they were delivered in smaller class room based or during drop down days, days where there is freedom to operate outside of the curriculum. The assembly can cover around 200 children in one 15 to 20-minute session. The managers or leaders did not comment on how the subjects were delivered.

(T18, 12, 13).

Further analysis of this point would suggest the managers really did not understand the different delivery options are removed from the 'hands on' delivery of the programmes.

The views on assembly delivery by the practitioners did vary, with around a quarter of the sample stating they felt the assembly was the wrong method of delivery, a small percentage felt the assembly was the right delivery and a significant majority were comfortable with the assembly delivery but with the caveat that there was a follow up session in smaller class groups to deal with the issues or tackle any questions that the student may have. The secondary data showed that the school assembly was the site where most of the programmes were delivered.

Just over half of the respondents of the children's focus group reported that the assembly was good as a venue and delivery option and met their needs. A minority of the children's group felt that the smaller sessions led by a teacher was their preferred model of delivery.

'I also run an assembly with each year group, normally 250 pupils, this is the final bit, this was the really useful bit. As a result of this 3 boys came out. The best option is the assembly, this was the hearts and minds part, followed by the smaller groups. The assembly is the down load, the session afterwards is key.' (T14)

The site of the delivery was a relevant point as there was clearly some conflict as to where the preferred location should be. Clearly from a learning perspective, the small class room environment is ideal, but in terms of achieving the greatest exposure within the smallest time frame, the assembly as the evidence suggests is the preferred option.

The focus groups looked at the question of the programme delivery. There should be some caution around this as the children were not presented with an alternative delivery method for them to make any informed comparisons. It would have been logistically difficult and would require a new research method, such as a Randomised Control Trial (RCT) to sufficiently conclude what delivery method they preferred. However, the students did qualify why they either preferred an assembly style (66%)

'The assembly style worked for me'

'The pictures were good they really showed how it happens'

'I would not want another way; it was easy to see'

Whilst small number were able to explain why they preferred the smaller break out groups with the teacher. This was supported in the literature (Petty, 2009), and supported by an experience teacher (**T4**)

'small groups would have been better – you can express your opinion.'

A teaching advisor with experience delivering school based programmes provided a view supporting smaller groups and identified the learning negative points from a teaching perspective.

'The PICs were delivered to the school assembly the problem with this though is we could not really interact or do any discussions. The smaller interactive sessions is what the children wanted, as a result of the drugs assembly presentation a child came forward to inform the school of drug taking'. (T1)

The findings show most common delivery method was during the school assembly, but the joined approach of delivering in the assembly followed by a class room based follow up session was the most popular amongst the practitioners in both education and the police point shared in Hebdictch, (1990). Whilst the assembly deliver was the most common session, it was not popular amongst the police practitioners as it simply failed to meet the reinforced learning, a point made in Whitey (2010).

'I understand many of the deliveries are done during the assembly, I am totally against this, you cannot hit the mark in the assembly. It is ok for a message but not for learning. We need to ask ourselves what do we want from an assembly?'
(T12)

An example of this could be the 'stay safe; rape awareness' was cited a subject that should be delivered in small sessions as it invited debate, whilst other less contentious subjects such as PICs (on line safety) was fine for an assembly delivery, but again with a follow up session.

'The assembly work as a good stimulus for learning, they are a good lead on to other PSHE subjects. It really does not work as a tick box exercise, it's what you do afterwards is the important thing, you won't get much learning from an assembly, it is effective after the session, or embedded learning; the assembly is simple seen as a quick fix, it is not the solution.' (T7)

The research also looked at where, in a busy timetable, should the programmes be delivered. This has some relevance as if there was total agreement that schools should deliver the programmes, there has to be time in the day or timetable to physically deliver the subjects. Equally there has to be some connection to the curriculum. 100 % of the respondents understood that the subjects were delivered within the PSHE or citizenship part of the curriculum and also felt that was the right place to deliver the subjects.

'There is less and less time to put into PSHE curriculum, it is always a squeeze.' (T6)

However, a Head Teacher accepted the timetable is squeezed but connected this to the other competing issues a school has to consider in terms of providing education and meeting standards or targets.

'The time table is really tight, it is about hitting the targets, but I do get the importance of keeping our children safe' (T18)

The time allocated ranged from 20 minutes to 2 hours, there was a theme that the time table was squeezed to accommodate the sessions, made in the main by school teachers.

'At the moment the timetable is really squeezed.' (T4)

There was complete synergy in placing the programmes within the PSHE or citizenship part of the curriculum. 100% of respondents stated that this was the place where the sessions are being delivered and the most appropriate place. This represents the national position with little or variance on the question.

There was a very small number of occasions where the PSHE or citizenship agenda was bypassed and the police managed to get bespoke sessions to the children. This was the exception and not normal. This is a key point as this research will present in the Analysis chapter and Conclusions chapter that there should be consistency across the schools and an evidence base as what subjects to deliver. This point was not made out to a great deal in the findings, as it is not normal practice, however, in terms of setting a framework for future professional practice an evidence base to agree what to deliver in schools should be presented.

The Design of the programmes

Before any programme can be delivered the session has to be designed, written and placed into a lesson plan format. The secondary research findings showed the final product varied from professional lesson plans (PICs/FAKE/Stay Safe) to simply a power point (Homophobic bullying).

This question was asked in the primary research as the researcher was keen to see what the police role would in the design of the programmes. In times of reduced budgets each activity an officer or PCSO undertakes has a cost attached to it, therefore writing the plans has a cost.

In a wider context to the cost is the role. Police officers, in the main, are not qualified teachers, therefore it is debatable whether they should be writing the lesson plans or putting together the programmes. However, the Police have the up to date knowledge of the law, cases and access to the imagery that are vital integral parts of the lesson plan.

The research found that the police currently design the majority of the programmes where a smaller number were done jointly and a minority are completed teaching staff. A supplementary question was asked whether the programmes could be delivered jointly, 100% of those who had experience in the design felt they should and could be completed jointly.

'The majority of the programmes are designed by the police. A joint venture would be ideal. (T6)

Part of the review of the school programmes, did show the programmes should be delivered interactively over the web, 4% felt this was the way forward with the programme design. To qualify this question, the respondents were not asked about value or costing around the delivery of the models. It was only the senior police officers and the review officer who mentioned this point. It is a limitation as the respondents could not really quantify why they did not mention a web based option. The secondary evidence has shown this to be a cost effective delivery option.

'The best way to it in a perfect world is have education experts working with the police. We have ex teachers in the police so why not use them. The best way is to include teachers in the design, we just don't do that in the schools' (T13)

A senior police officer, with no teaching background identified there were other ways of blending police and education whilst recognising the skills of both professions.

However this view was not shared with a senior national PSHE professional who reported an education led option.

'I really think the framework should be the school who design the programmes and negotiate with the police' (T9)

Whilst the police design the majority of the programmes, there is a clear theme that this could and should be delivered jointly. There is some recognition that teaching staff are qualified to write the plans but they need the police knowledge to populate the programmes.

The senior officers are not opposed to the joint venture in the design of the programmes as they recognise the expertise of both professions and need to come together in the safeguarding of children.

'The programmes are designed by the police; they are designed well. A combination between the police and education would be really good, I would also like to see a copy of the programmes before they went out to the children' (T2)

The web based delivery is a sound cost effective way to deliver the programmes, however, the research was unable to examine this option much further as it was in its infancy at the time of the research.

Children in the design of the programmes

This question was presented in the research to explore further how the design of the programmes could be improved and what the role of the police or a collaboration of the police and education might be.

An observation during the field work of this research was that the age and generation gap between the professionals who currently design the programmes and the children who receive them was significant. Whilst this research cannot state any actual age differences, it can report that the people who generally write the programmes, police employees or volunteers, are experienced professionals. Children and young people are from a different generation to the professionals who may have a different understanding of the key messages and use different words to the professionals.

'Kids know when something is out of date and whatever is designed it has to have a local, something they connect with, what does it mean in their life, it won't happen here or to me, you know that sort of thing' (T2)

Whilst this will not form any solid recommendations, this research will present a basic summary of the examination, with a particular focus on the role of the police and education professionals and how children can work with them.

I think it is really useful to have children involved, make sure you understand what is being said. Ask them what the street name for cannabis is and they will tell you more than you know'

(T17)

100% of the respondents, including the governors, felt children could and should be involved in the design of the programmes. There was some debate around how this could be logistically achieved within a school setting. Wider complex issues were posed by the professionals as to which children to select or not select and how consistency could be met across different schools across the county.

An experienced teacher in a challenging school felt including children in the programmes had merit.

'real value in the future to have something similar to this, really good forward thinking'. (T6)

Whilst a teacher in large semi- rural school was able to identify that adults often speak or understand different interpretation of the language than young children, clearly if this is noticed in a learning setting, it would be as valid in the design and to a lesser degree the delivery of the sessions.

'Yes, mainly because it is a good idea, we should connect to them in their language'. (T3)

The professionals felt that both police and education can work with the children to help design the programmes, but logistically this would be disjointed. The literature highlighted that giving children a voice was a sound and recommended practice; however, the literature was not examining school based safeguarding programmes. The research did show that the professionals do not, currently include the children in the design of the programmes whatsoever.

'Any school programme is generally enhanced by co contracting young people, the quality will be enhanced if the kids are involved' (T18)

It was highlighted that although having children in the design was credible, it has some logistic challenges, such the simple task of gathering the children, selecting who should and who should not be selected and of course, the time involved with making this happen, all in a school day. To do this in the child's time would be problematic and the teaching profession would struggle to facilitate this into a school curriculum.

'Yes most definitely but as I said it would be the logistics of getting this done would be the problem'. (T1)

It was agreed by the respondents that children, are a different age in terms of communication and Information Technology to adults, their language is often different and crucially their understanding of life is communicated in a way that the respondents struggled to keep up with. It was recognised that their buy in was important at the point of design to ensure those presenting were 'saying the right things', a view shared by an experienced schools strategic police officer and qualified social worker.

'This is really important, ultimately they know what they want.

The kids are different types, a digital society that want everything instantly, only they can tell us what they want'. T10

This view demonstrates the complex make up of modern children, it is recognised by professionals, but the key is to turn their thoughts or language into something they connect with, want and ultimately can learn. The voice of the child, whilst not clearly connected to the objectives was approached to simply establish the best way forward to jointly design programmes that stand a better chance of achieving success than not; taking the voice of the child is a sensible step forward and contributor to the research.

Funding – Who pays?

During an austerity period, it is reasonable for senior public sector staff to question the involvement of their organisation, both in terms of monetary value (capital) and staffing (revenue), in areas of activity that do not sit comfortably in their work place.

This question was designed to explore the strategic thinking of the organisations view of their role in safeguarding programmes in terms of financial support and direction. The question probed the current funding arrangements and then what should the arrangements look like; current and looking forward.

The research highlighted that 100 % of the respondents, including the senior staff, had not given the costs any real consideration. Whilst the senior leaders acknowledged that any involvement of their staff (Police) came with some indirect cost, but no funding formula existed or even any thought as to how much the end to end process of the safeguarding programmes costs.

There was an interesting contrast when posed with the forward thinking probe with a small number stating the police should fund the programmes, A small minority felt it should be responsibility of the school and the same small minority felt this be met by the government.

A teacher in a semi-urban school was able to connect the need to safeguard children with a reduced operating budget in the school. Some schools set aside different amounts for different activities.

'If the funding was joint, then maybe we could pay for this, it is all so valuable but the money is just not there' (T6)

However, a view was reported by an experienced Police supervisor who was adamant that this was the function of the police as the police were the beneficiary of the programmes.

'No way should the school pay for this. We (police) are the ones who benefit from this, we are ones given the job to reduce crime' (T16)

However, an average number stated that it should, in some way be funded jointly by police and education. Joint funding is nothing unusual, the issue is working out who has done what and whether the contribution reflects their contribution. An example of this maybe education could actually delegate the entire function to the police, instead of giving a staff member, they may give an equivalent amount in money. There a number of well recognised options that can meet joint funding arrangements.

'If the funding was joint, then maybe we could pay for this, it is all so valuable but the money is just not there' (T6)

There was a strong feeling in the narrative of the findings that if charging was introduced people would simply not pay or simply opt out of the programmes. This really opened out the debate around the role of the police, as if it is considered a role for the police then it is fair to assume the police will pay or at least not charge.

'The feeling is if we charge they (schools) may not take part, they have a budge, the brand for the police is sufficiently strong, they (schools) will use it, the schools will benefit from it. I am comfortable with charging, but I understand you may have to pump prime it. Charge later when it is good'. (T11)

However, findings were mixed, with governors stating this is absolutely for the police to pay, whilst professionals (23%) stated that it is for the police or a hybrid. This shows that the lines of the role of the police or who has overall responsibility is blurred when considered in isolation without looking at the wider research findings.

'I think would be lucky to get any uptake, budgets are tight. For the small cost well it would be sad to charge, and not have an up take as they would just opt out (the schools), 1,200 students plus 150 teachers is a cost saving to us with less' (T14)

A teacher in a semi- rural school clearly had this on mind in conversation with police colleagues, interestingly, the teacher, similar to the Police supervisor, felt again the police whilst trying to protect the community are the organisation who benefit from the programmes.

'The situation we are in, no way we cannot fund it, the police I speak with say it should be funded by the police. It is the future community that the police will be sorting out, surely they should be paying'. (T4)

A key respondent was a senior finance officer for Hampshire Council **(T22)**, which includes police, council and the fire service. This respondent was not part of the overall sample size, but rather asked the bespoke questions on finance. This respondent was introduced on the basis that none of the respondents were either able or qualified to comment on the costs. I felt it was important to include this as part within the study as the reason to remove officers from the school was due to the costs.

(T22) *'the question for me is whether the programmes are a core service that the police deliver, if they are, we cannot legally charge for them, but if they are not we can charge for them'*
'presentations cannot be costed; it is just what you do' (T22).

This is key point when focusing on the role of the police, if the police have a role then clearly this forms part of their core duty and no charging can be made. This aspect can stretch wider as if it is decided that there is a role for police it can be shown that this forms part of their operational or policing requirement, making any argument around cost void.

'We can have funding arrangements with schools, but there is a big difference between an officer going into a school ad hoc but not full time, against an officer going into a school on a permanent basis. In this case it is harder to provide joint funding'
(T22).

The wider debate around funding the programmes has not been considered properly by either profession. However, they have started to consider this with the review commissioned by the Policing and Crime Commissioner, which was partially driven around reducing police costs. Education, in the main, reported that they did not have a budget or adequate funds to cover any charging of the programmes.

'Well there is not much money in the budget, there is just so little money in the budget' **(T3)**

Practitioners stated that the police are the profession who benefit, therefore should shoulder the costs. Some of the respondents **(T3)** considered a 'pay as you go' but also reported that they would struggle to meet any costs.

Collaboration between Police and Education in safeguarding programmes:

The objective of this question category was to explore the role of the police and how they work or could work with education in a collaborative way whilst safeguarding children through school based programmes.

Partnership working is a key responsibility of the police and their statutory partners. The literature and government legislation (Crime and Disorder Act 1994) has highlighted the joint working practices of key strategic partnerships. Education and police are both integral members of Local Strategic Partnerships (LSP), Local Safeguarding Children Board (LSCB) and the Hampshire Safeguarding Children Board (HCSB). These boards discuss and make decisions on both local and strategic level to safeguard children.

It seemed sensible to examine this arrangement from the perspective of the sample group, who although most have no inclusion or influence with the boards, it would be of interest to the research to see how the professionals actually work together and how or if they should work more closely, in the context of the research objective. The questions posed were both seeking the current arrangement and forward thinking.

A small sample felt that the relationship was good and that joint working existed in their school or policing neighbourhood. Just under half of the respondents felt that there was little or no joint working between the professionals in their school or neighbourhood.

'Collaboration is not too good as the police have just gone in the opposite direction really, they have pulled out when they should be going in the other direction' (T5)

This response does require a narrative to expand this point. This evidence is based on school based programmes and is no reflection on the overall school/police engagement or relationship. This research has inadequate evidence to comment on the wider schools – police relationship. Equally within the sample some of the practitioners were against the move away from delivering schools following the 2014 review and may have based their responses on this as opposed to looking forward.

'We are very different but it is easy see the cross over. The whole engagement piece is old. With the cuts we need to find a way to help with education to deliver, without providing more resources, we need to support education but not overly resource intensive' (T13)

100% of the respondents did not support the view that the two professionals should not work together or that working together would be an issue. The majority reported that both professions should work more closely together with school based programmes and felt that this should be achievable at a tactical level and really did not need much strategic direction.

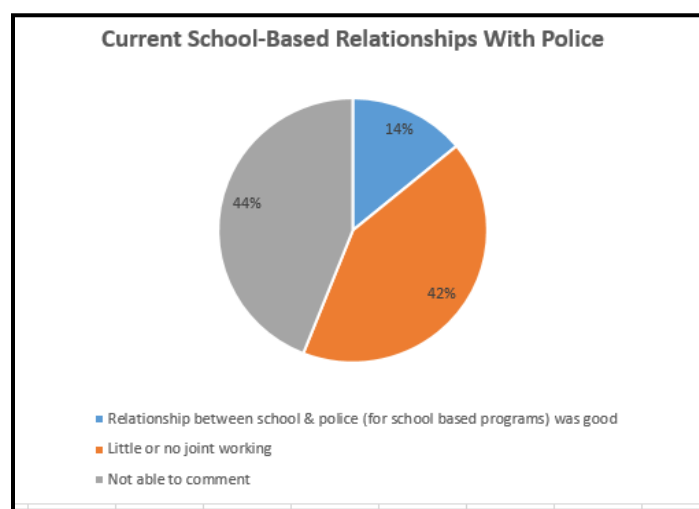


Figure: 6:3 School based relationships between schools and police

A view from an experienced teacher in an affable rural catchment area took a broad view on this issue, showing at practitioner level the wider need for joint working is necessary.

'We do this already, we already collaborate well with the police. What would be good is if the police and the education meet in advance and decide who should do what. The problem of course of course is if you don't have formal collaboration or some sort, some miss out. The programmes should be consistent throughout, all of the schools should have this' (T4)

The view of a Police supervisor was not so broad, in fact, the view suggested that collaboration, maybe from a police perspective was not good but could be much better if the investment and direction at a senior level was there.

'Not sure we do a good job of this, I am afraid it is down to individuals to do it most of the time. I really think we are missing a trick, in my personal opinion'. (T16)

The definition of working together was probed further as some respondents defined this as simply having the police on the premises or at hand should they call them, but when the probing was refined into the school based programmes the outcome was safer in the research findings as linked to the school programmes.

100% of the focus groups with the governors felt there should be a closer working arrangement at leadership and local (practitioner) level. Some respondents were unable to answer the question as they were removed from the practical delivery aspect of the joint working.

However, the comment from an experienced teacher and police staff volunteer, who was integral to the delivery of the pre – review programmes, was interesting as it was as independent as could be achieved as the respondent was not employed by either the police or education.

‘There is very little of this at the moment. This has the potential to expanded and worked upon’ (T15)

Whilst the view is narrow, it again suggests that the collaborative arrangements can improve across both professions, this was shared by the police officer above.

The current collaborative working arrangements with the school based programmes were very ad hoc with little or no strategic direction, but more down to individuals in both professions making it work for their school or district. Equally there was no evidence to suggest that senior managers were opposed to the working arrangements, but rather content to allow the status the quo. However, the evidence from the PCC and the Police strategic leader on this subject both pushed for closer joint working, albeit with a tight financial parameter, yet the evidence has shown that the police are moving away from this joint position with the programmes.

Whilst the respondents felt collaboration was a positive step forward when looking forward, it was slightly different from a current position. The senior police officers were able to draw in the connection with wider strategic partnerships across the organisation.

'The collaborative approach to manage this is key. The troubled families agenda are forcing partners to work together'. (T12)

The responses from the leaders who were closer to the problems and the strategic direction of the organisation (post CSR) were able to be more balanced. Whilst only small in sample, their professional level placed them in a valuable position. They were able to identify a perception from briefings and crucially able to see a value and how the future relationship could and should work. They supported having strategic alignment at the top, focused at head teacher to district commander, or in the children boards.

A police officer, who is also a qualified teacher and assisted in the delivery of the pre review programmes, had a firm view on the collaborative arrangements. The view was critical but clearly based on personal experience from someone close to the programme delivery.

In summary the respondents agreed that collaboration, in its current format was not great, but could be improved with some direction. Whilst not everyone took this view, the overall desire was to have closer synergy. It is important to place some context around this issues.

'The police have withdrawn significantly from schools engagement, it is all very ad hoc at the moment, the joint working is just not joint, the kids are just getting what the police are giving them as opposed to a two way relationship. In an ideal world they need to establish a relationship at the top end and down the rank line' (T17)

The question was designed and focused on joint working on school based programmes and does not represent the overall collaboration with schools and the police in Hampshire and the Isle Of Wight with the many other functions schools and police have. This is an important ethical consideration.

Government Policy

This question category was introduced to understand how the professionals understand the government and any strategic policy around school based safeguarding programmes. It is accepted that this question does have very little connection to the research aims and objectives, but it had the potential to highlight which professionals understood the national governance around why they are involved in the programmes.

A small number stated that they understood the government policy and direction of PSHE subjects.

The purposive sample at every level, a large majority were unable to identify the existence of the Safer Schools Partnership or any government or other policy that provides any guidance or best practice in PSHE subjects or delivery.

This does highlight a theme that the PSHE leaders have failed to articulate the governance and policy of PSHE to the professionals who deliver the subjects. Operating blind with no strategic governance arguably presents a risk to the leaders of police and education who are key decision makers in the PSHE agenda. There were no key quotes that could value to the research on this question category.

Evaluation

This question was designed to explore whether, like any education programme, that there was some evaluation of the knowledge and what, if any, was the value in doing the programmes. The role of police with this question was largely around whether they evaluated the programmes and whether they could measure this against their core role. This really links into the literature review in the DARE evaluation. This evaluation suggested that the police led programmes have had little or no success in the US, yet remain popular.

Just over half stated that the evaluation of the programmes was carried out using reactionary feedback sheets. A reactionary feedback sheet is defined in Kirkpatrick (1994) as a level 1 evaluation, a lesson evaluated by the student immediately after the session. This is not an ideal evaluation for any education programme, but under the condition and time issues presented it does seem the most sensible method of evaluation, but least reliable.

A substantial majority stated that there was no evaluation strategy or plan, but rather the police and in limited circumstances the police and education, manually went through the sheets and simply recorded the grades the students gave, on a simple 1 – 4 scale, pulled out any relevant comments and made a note of any areas for improvement.

The most interesting finding in this question category was over half of the respondents stated that you cannot measure the success of the programmes. Whilst a definition of success was never suggested, they respondents made the judgement around reducing crime or changing attitudes and behaviours. Again similar to the DARE programme it could be argued that their criteria of measurement of definition of success was flawed. A teacher from a City school highlighted the difficulty to measure success in terms of behaviour and the school packages, but recognised the value is more around safer lifestyle choices, which, ultimately is the success criteria of the programmes.

'With difficulty. You cannot measure behaviour, once they leave the gates, that's it really for that day. Linking this to the packages is hard. I feel it is more about improved lifestyles and safer students, that is success to me' (T1)

This was a shared view by an education advisor who was also able to define what success looked like to them.

'It is almost impossible to connect the programmes with a reduction in crime, or a change in attitudes/beliefs. However, it is more a case of understanding and knowing what is we are measuring, raising awareness to keep kids safe just seems like the right thing to do' (T15)

A small minority did take a different position on what success looked like suggesting that if the programmes measured raising awareness to give children life choices then they were successful. However, on its own this is, again, difficult to measure. As a learning objective to raise awareness, if delivered properly is fine, but its measurement is less clear. This point is discussed later in the research as an '*implication for further research*'. An experienced national PSHE advisor provided a clearly defined view based purely on a wider national PSHE perspective.

'Anything involving PSHE is always difficult to measure' (T9)

Evaluation of any learning activity is key, whether it is pure learning as defined in Petty (2009) or raising awareness. There should be some measurable outcome to the activity. However, with safeguarding is so difficult to quantify and only a longitudinal study could assist to show any connection with the learning/awareness and a reduction in crime or even feeling of safety. However, without such metrics this simply leaves an unanswered hole in the subject, but this issue was not an objective of this study.

The future

This was an important question and was designed to meet the 3rd objective of the study. To take this study forward there has to be a product for leaders to consider and any recommendation or finding has an implication on one or both professions. I felt it was valuable evidence to allow the purposeful sample to articulate what success looked like based on their professional judgement and practical reality outside of an ideal world, but a world that could be influenced by a sound evidence base. The question was focused on the role of the police, the programme delivery, design and evaluation. The evaluation of the programmes was not really probed on this question as its value was not connected to the research question.

This question also looked at the evidence as to why subjects are delivered in the schools. At no point in the research findings has any respondent ever challenged why some subjects are covered and others are not. The theme of the research is to safeguard children from harm, but harm has a wide range. The research has shown the programmes that are delivered, but also evidence that some ad hoc programmes are delivered in the main by the police. The probe on this question was to try and understand how and who should decide what the subjects should be delivered if the findings are suggesting some consistency.

A large majority of respondents replied that there should be a strategic alliance of connection at the top of the professions. This emerged in various responses such as Senior Leaders meeting, strategic heads or the top table, either descriptions arguably means the influential leaders in the police, education and stakeholders of the Local Authorities. This was not rank specific, but based on professional knowledge, this means the attendees of the Local Children Safeguarding Board (LCSB), who are of senior rank and key decision makers for the safeguarding of children across Hampshire, Isle of Wight, Portsmouth and Southampton. 100% of the governors felt that the connection between the police and education had to be at the leadership level. A really key point was made by a senior police officer who has extensive public protection safeguarding experience.

'I really think the LCJB have a co-coordinating role here, right people are around the table at the level and time (health – fire – police – education) people from each profession can be brought in for an agenda item. There has to be an evidence base to what deliver this should be strategically agreed and sent down to schools to deliver as they see fit, it maybe through assembly, with police and have tutor groups to discuss the issues. This has to be demand and evidence led as to why we have a subject and not another and must be in partnership.'

(T13)

This evidence can be seen almost as a directive steer with the study, by making the connection with the literature around the LSCB and their overall strategic role in this topic area and also a practical guide as to how this can work. This evidence formed the body of the proposed model in the next chapter.

The majority of respondents reported that some sort of menu of options should be agreed by a strategic board. The description of a menu varied as some described a list of subject and others stated an evidence base of subjects that could be dropped down to the schools. The term menu was used to simplify the description of what the respondents were saying and what they were describing was the same thing.

An education project officer, who was also a police officer provided a similar comment to the senior officer around a strategic alignment at the beginning of the process.

'I feel there is a massive potential for education and the police to collaborate at every level. I can see strategic heads meeting, say police, health, education, fire and agreeing an evidence base as to what subjects need to be delivered. This should be cascaded down to each school in a format for them to agree locally. Local programmes should be designed so they are corporate and then made more bespoke to the localism bit. Local teams should agree how they are designed, whether web based, hybrid or by police'. (T12)

Whilst the evidence did not make mention of the LSCB, the theme was largely the same, with a joined senior approach followed by a local delivery of the programmes.

An interesting finding was that the majority of the respondents recorded that a local connection was necessary; this emerged as a strong finding. Whilst the respondents were high in the response to a corporate menu of subjects agreed at a strategic level, but they felt they should have some local flexibility to mould this into their local school or district. **T3** was able to articulate what this actually meant from a practical perspective.

An example of the localism could be whilst it would be reasonable to accept that violence maybe an issue for the police, education and society and the programme design should reflect this, the level and nature of the violence would be different between the Southampton and the rural community on the Isle of Wight. This would simply be reflected in the menu of options made available to schools and agreed by the LSCB for example. A police officer education project officer was able to link the menu of subjects with the school curriculum whilst maintain the bespoke theme.

'The end game for me is safe4me. There has to be a strategic alignment into the curriculum, agree the subjects in advance. Have a drop down menu of some sort, corporate and allow the schools the freedom to select the subjects to make minor changes that reflect their bespoke difference'. (T10)

However, with some minor adjustments, relevant case studies, statistics or issues could be introduced to the Isle of Wight programme to give the children and feel of relevance or that this may happen to you, without moving away from the actual programme theme. A teacher from a town catchment took the view around having that local connection and that whatever was designed with the options, it had to be corporate, this would be requirement of any LSCB direction as each school doing different things, as the evidence has shown currently happens, is not a way forward.

The evidence from a teacher sums up the overall proposed findings with the strategic alignment at the beginning, working within an agreed framework and the ability to be flexible.

'Give us consistency, we should have this advance and also a strategic framework, there has to be flexibility to deal with local stuff' (T6)

This evidence has been presented from a range of respondents each in different professions or roles, but providing some strong cohesive evidence around what the future could like based on the evidence provided.

Figure 6.4 below shows the evidence to support a model for the future. The key headings were for the large majority of the respondents felt strategic leaders should to work closely together (strategic alliance), with a majority reporting that the programmes should have some local connection, arguing as issue on the Isle of Wight will be different to an issue in Southampton. Finally, the majority agreed that a menu of delivery options for the schools to consider was a good point. Some schools can elect for personal external speakers whilst others can elect to use the on line web based safe4me programme.

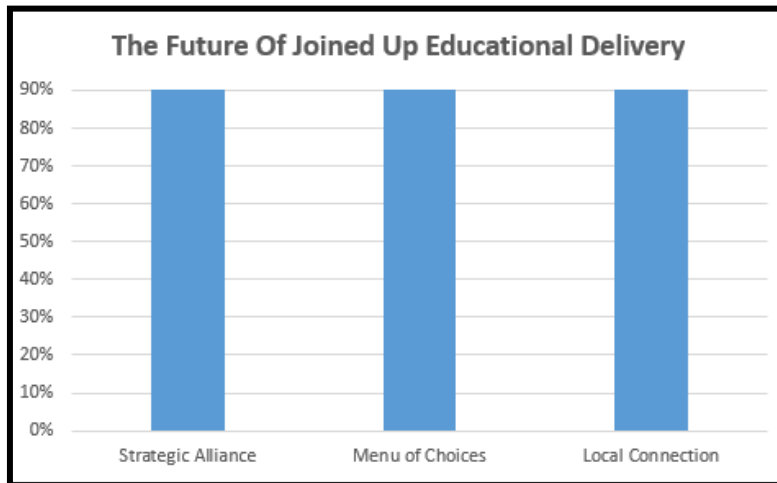


Figure: **6:4Future of joined delivery**

In summary this chapter has presented the findings of the research. The secondary data highlighted that there was no governance or collaborative plan in the approach taken by Hampshire Police. There was no evidence that any thought or consideration was given as to what programmes were being delivered. The delivery style was largely via a pre designed power point and given at a school assembly. A comprehensive review was conducted, as commissioned by the PCC, which refreshed the delivery style, moving officers and PCSO's away from the deliveries to a more web based programme for teachers to deliver. The findings highlighted that an external speaker (police officer/PSCO) would be best placed to deliver the programmes, in an assembly. There should be greater collaborative working between police and education and a strategic direction as to what programmes to deliver within a flexible framework for local police and school leaders to agree how to deliver within range of options was a model for consideration.

CHAPTER 7 Analysis

This chapter will consider the analysis of my findings in relation to safeguarding children through school based programmes. I will look to analyse the results and place them into a safeguarding and victimology framework. This analysis will draw upon the literature examined and contextualise this within the overarching results. In considering the results it is important to note that some of the respondents were in favour of a particular police approach to school based programmes and some were not, this is well delineated in the research limitations and within the analysis. My research overall aim evolved as a result of my professional knowledge around the lack of joint work in this specific area of safeguarding children.

Having analysed the data, it became clear that, in places, the findings were blurred and contradictory. To an extent this research can explain some of this. The sample mixed together practitioners, senior leaders, staff who worked on the pre 2012 review and staff who worked post 2012 review, therefore they will see some issues very differently. However, the overlaying disagreement was around the programme delivery and was centrally driven by money. In other places within the findings of the research there is broad agreement around the findings

The challenge I faced was putting such diverse views and range of issues into some contextual frame work that can flow for the reader to follow. The strategy I exercised was to place the discussion into subject headers, in the same way that I framed the findings, whilst bringing in the academic literature or support or critique any discussions. This outcome of the discussion will inform the conclusion and implications section of the thesis.

The programme delivery is a key feature of the research, in particular with the examination into role of a single agency; the police. The actual programme delivery was framed in a number of parts, they are all connected but seen differently by the respondents. The key focus is the role of the police.

The literature on the AWCSLP (Wales) provided the investment of placing police officers into the school, who amongst other functions, delivered the programmes a point made in Stead *et al* (2011). The US DARE programme did the same, except the police officers were qualified with basic teaching functions (Pontin, 1996) whilst in the AWCSLP they were not qualified. The broader SSP (outside of Wales) did not use Police officers to deliver programmes but rather simply manage issues within a number of schools. This was a contested point in the evidence. The practitioners felt that Police Officers or PCSO's should be delivering the programmes, whilst educators felt a hybrid model would be ideal and senior police officers felt this was the role of education.

The difference in views was expected. It is argued the senior leaders are focused on money, where the evidence has shown they feel this is not the role of the police, who during a period of austerity, should be focused on solving more serious school problems not teaching. However, the value of the external speaker was well articulated in the literature evidence, with Coleman (2014) Nourse (1995), Glenwick and Chablot 1991) all agreed that external speakers bring a value to the class room and greatly enhance the student learning and has been measured and quantified by academic research (Coleman, 2014). The evidence from the respondents suggested that the physical presence of a Police Officer or PCSO added value for the students.

When probed on this issue, the senior leaders agreed that if money was the not the issue, an ideal model would be a hybrid between a teacher and a police officer or PCSO. The point is that money is an issue with police resources being reduced within the Comprehensive Spending Review. It is difficult to apply an 'ideal world' context when in reality an ideal world is very different to reality. The balance is around senior police leaders not willing to make the commitment against some educators, police practitioners and the literature suggesting that the role of the police family is to deliver all or part of the programmes in tandem with teachers.

The SSP is very blurred on this point, but the AWCSLP and the DARE programme are very clear that the physical delivery is a role for the police.

But the evidence has shown that the outcome of the DARE programme is not clear and the scholarly research argues they offer little evidence of success against what they were funded to achieve (Wysong, Aniskiewicz and Wright, 1994). There has been no large scale academic evaluation of the AWCSLP so I cannot rely on this as evidence as to whether it works. The central issue is the role of the police, the evidence suggests they have a role in the physical delivery and design of the programmes, but the resistance is the use of police time as being cost effective or even effective.

Although no cost model has been established in the evidence, the model of delivery does have times scales attached with a cost benefit outcome; time officers/staff/educator spent plus size of the target audience. Less time and greater number of students does present a strong cost effective argument.

The point being articulated here is that senior officers have made decisions to remove police officers away from the physical delivery of the school based programmes with no bench mark or cost model to evidence their decision, which as the evidence has reported, was based on cost. The same can be applied to the design of the programmes. It is a fair argument to ask why should the police fund this? In response there is no fair answer, someone has to commit, the evidence points towards a uniformed external speaker as does the influence in the design suggesting the police may have to absorb this cost. The thinking of the Senior Officers is supported in the comprehensive spending review (HM Treasury, 2010). A longitudinal study of evaluation may help provide an evidence base to justify this expense.

Having explored the discussion around the physical presence of the police or PCSO in the delivery of the programmes, there is an argument to explore what is the most cost effective role the police can perform with the programmes. The discussion will look at the wider roles the police can perform later, but will focus on cost effectiveness first. Examining the cost benefit is important to any public sector organisation as most are facing government cuts, as this thesis has reported on, and work with public funds. The activity of a police officer or staff member is often under scrutiny to ensure they are providing value for money.

There are a range of options that capture children in the school environment from a web based platform to a large assembly setting. The evidence suggested that the site of the delivery seemed to be universally accepted as the assembly, whilst not ideal, the evidence shows it was the best place to deliver the initial programme as it can accommodate a wide audience against a very tight timetable. The academic evidence suggests that the assembly, or lecture style delivery, is the least popular style amongst learners (Hebditch, 1990) and smaller group learning or follow up sessions reinforce the knowledge, (Withey, 2010).

The same discussion around who should do this is relevant to the previous discussion. The evidence suggested that some follow up sessions should be delivered in smaller tutor groups to address bespoke issues raised from the assembly delivery. In the context of maximising staff time, in this case the police, time and the size of the audience is important. The assembly does cover a large amount of young people, therefore minimising the time spent in the school to a maximum number of people.

This delivery style is far from ideal, the research has highlighted that students are less likely to ask questions in such an environment and the learning can be diluted by the distractions presented by such large audiences. However, on the balance, this does seem a cost effective and practical model of delivery for such a short amount of time taken to physically delivery. The evidence has stated the delivery can take anything from 20 minutes to 40 minutes, which is not long.

The evidence did argue that that small tutor groups were the ideal model of delivery. As cited, ideal is not reality and whilst this research accepts that small class sessions will always be the preferred the model of delivery, they are not cost effective based on the cost of the officer/PCSO/Teacher and the small tutor group size. This supported by Petty (2009) who argued that the quality of learning will is greater in smaller learning groups.

Taking a wider look at the role of the police and their connection to the programmes, the research examined the design of the programmes. No evidence is offered around the time taken to design a programme, but the value of a good programme was demonstrated. The evidence did show that a local theme and a sense of reality is key to keeping the attention of the students. The police clearly have a role here as they are the single profession who can provide the programme designers with the up to date local themes or cases and can provide that sense of reality based on cases they have worked on that affect children and a learning outcome. This is an area of joint working, as teachers have the professional qualification to write a lesson plan or programme for children, but they need the police or other professionals such as fire or health to provide the content and learning context. This form of joint working seems sensible, however, it still takes time and as this discussion has cited is a central issue for the senior police officers, as each action or activity completed by a police officer/PCSO has a cost attached to it.

Whilst it is attractive to have the programmes jointly, it is accepted the views of the senior leaders must be considered, whether it is in the design, the delivery or elsewhere on the path of the programmes and the research. Whilst examining the role of the police in safeguarding school based programmes it seems the definition of the police role is wide. Whilst it is ideal to have a hybrid of police and teachers working together to deliver the programmes, as the evidence has suggested, in practice this is not always going to be possible. However, through joint working the roles can extend beyond its physical delivery and the design of the programmes. The research explored the evaluation of the programmes and the role the police has with this function. This point takes the research on another journey. My intention was not to show the value of the programmes, as this was not a research aim or objective, but to see what the evaluation of the programmes, connected to the police, evidentially showed.

The temptation is to take a route that would show whether the programmes actually made any difference, such as reducing crime or improving peoples' lives. However, this issue, whilst fascinating, was not pursued. The research evidence did not show any correlation between the school-based programmes and a change in behaviour, reduction in crime or any other tangible outcome. There is a direct correlation between this point and academic evaluation of the DARE programme (Wysong, Aniskiewicz and Wright, 1994). The evaluation of the programmes were basic and unreliable.

The data from the research also supported this point reporting that you cannot measure the success of intervention programmes in the short term, accepting that a future longitudinal study may take this question closer to an understanding of success. A crucial point in this study and the analysis of the evidence is around the value of the programmes and how they 'make a difference' Whilst the academic evaluations of the DARE programme (Wysong, Aniskiewicz and Wright, 1994) and De Jong, (1987) are clear in their evidence that the case has not been made that the education programmes do not change attitudes and behaviours or divert young people from drugs and alcohol, however, the key point is that they continue.

Drawing the analysis from the literature into this study, the central theme or 'big ticket item' is the safeguarding of children, or removing the risk of being victims within a victimology context. The literature has articulated that children are vulnerable as victims to a range of crimes (Winstone and Pakes, 2005) and require safeguarding from being victims within a collaborative framework (Munro, 2011) and (OSCB, 2016). Whilst this research has not claimed any contribution to showing victimisation can be reduced with school based safeguarding programmes, it has contributed to victimology literature by presenting a tactical option (the model Figure 7:1) that has safe guarding governance in order to help children make healthy safe choices following an awareness programme. Clearly further research on this issue to show a longitudinal connection with crime is a sound academic consideration.

Whilst this research examined the sole agency of the police role in safeguarding programmes, the discussion and research cannot ignore joint working with partners and in this case, mainly education. The purpose of the research was to explore whether this is a role for the police and this case, a joint role. The balance is around keeping to research aim, the role of the police, and avoiding falling into a debate around value and what is the best solution. However, professional doctorate research should also be capable of improving professional practice (Clements and Creaton, 2011).

The literature has defined the statutory obligations of joint work working, however this research has defined joint working as the Police and Education working together to safeguard children through school based programmes. This broadly fits into the statutory duty, but is not specifically cited in the legislation. The research findings suggested '*there should be a closer relationship between the police and education*' (Radford, 2011). Arguably this suggests that currently both professions fall short on a close relationship in terms of school based safeguarding programmes. A closer and more granular examination of this statement did highlight some interesting points for analysis.

The issue here for discussion is the lack of joint strategic direction. On one side, the senior police officers and the findings of a comprehensive review led by the Policing Commissioner recommend that the police withdraw from school based programmes, but provide no commentary as to what part of the programmes they will withdraw from. However, the decision making was based on limited evidence with no real measurement of success or costs attached to it. The withdrawal was clearly at odds with the views of the practitioners, who questioned this decision in the research. This may help to explain the strong indicator towards the perceived need for closer working relationships, despite their clear and obvious practice at practitioner level.

This must be balanced with the central issue of funding and the intelligent deployment of police resources following the Comprehensive Spending Review 2010(HM Treasury, 2010) which as the evidence shows, was the rationale for the senior officers and the review findings to withdraw from the programmes. However, it remains blurred as to what exactly the police are withdrawing from and whether there are other strategic and equally valuable roles the police can perform in support of the programmes. It should be stated that the police employ a staff member to this area of business on a full time basis, therefore, there is clearly a role.

There was no real mention of any strategic alignment between the professions with the programmes, but some clear evidence of joint working at practitioner level. This was a crucial point made in Davies and Ward (2012) and how interagency working depended on the practitioners.

The evidence did show this to be disjointed, on an ad hoc basis. Practitioners were working with no clear joined up policy or guidance; just committed professionals doing what they believe to be is the right thing. The discussion around the strategic alignment and the role of strategic police leaders in the programmes is the inclusion of the wider statutory partners who were introduced in the evidence by a senior officer. The Police and Education, together with other key stakeholders in the safety of children, attend the Local Safeguarding Children's Board (LSCB), (Munro, 2011).

As the secondary evidence has indicated there are LCSB meetings for Portsmouth, Southampton, Hampshire County and the Isle of Wight. The evidence has reported that there should be a platform for strategic leaders or alliance to meet and co-ordinate this safeguarding activity. The LSCB could be a platform for stakeholders to discuss and agree what, if any, safeguarding programmes should be delivered to schools HM Government (2013) confirms this issue by setting up the safeguarding arrangements outlined. The data argued that the rationale for selecting programmes must have an evidence base to help inform the board what programmes to select and which ones not to select.

Whilst the findings reported that strategic alignment had potential, the findings also highlighted that in fact there was very little strategic alignment for the programmes. This lack of alignment does make the work for the practitioners more difficult as there is no policy or governance. This was highlighted by education practitioners who reported curriculum time was very tight making the fitting of safeguarding subjects difficult. However, the findings, did identify a role for the police, whether as key stakeholders at the LSCB or in the design of the programmes to form the evidence that they are needed or to provide the local contextual framework.

A point for discussion is the competition for inclusion into the school curriculum against any level of consistency. In the absence of any central direction, schools and the police can elect whether they wish to become involved in programmes and can simply deliver whatever subjects they like with no evidence base to why and what value they may bring. Education will always have to balance a tight curriculum with the Ofsted requirements and a child's academic attainment, however, citizenship is part of the curriculum, but how this time is filled is down to individual schools and lacks consistency.

As the evidence has shown, no costs are attached to the programmes, the police rationale for engagement is around deploying limited resources to where the greatest good is needed, whilst head teachers will manage a tight curriculum with targets and other competing demands on their time. This research will imply a solution for the police and education to consider, that may mitigate some the discussion points raised.

The analysis debated the evidence presented in the findings, balancing the views of the professions, leaders, practitioners and local authorities. Whilst there has been some broad agreement that there is a role for the police in safeguarding school based programmes, the exact role is blurred, as is the strategic direction of the wider topic. This research will now look at the future or the implications as a result of this study. The fundamental requirement of a professional doctorate is for a change in professional practice in the work place. I will argue that this research will present a range of implications to be considered by senior police and education professionals.

This part of the research will be based on the evidence presented in this study, whilst some professional judgement will be applied, this will be made explicit to the reader and will only be used for matters of internal practice. Drawing on the analysis of the findings and the wider study, this research will bring to life the findings and crucially contribute to literature.

The study contributes to the reduction of harm against children, or reducing the likelihood of them being victims of crime within a victimology framework. The OCJS (2006) reported that 10 – 15 year olds were more likely to be victims than older people whilst Winstone and Pakes (2005) argued that youth is the most crimeogenic age suggesting that children are vulnerable as victims of crime. However, within a victimology context, there are other dangers that children face, such as cyber bullying or other related cyber-crimes (Campbell, 2005) and Child Sexual Exploitation.

This study has made the connection between children and victimology, placing the academic contribution within a victimology context. Taking this further, this study will translate the analysis, academic knowledge and professional judgement into a 'living' model for practitioners to consider, whilst adding to academic knowledge. The children Act 1989 is clear around professionals responsibilities to work together to safeguard children and this direction is set out by the Department for Education (DFCS, 2010). The safeguarding requirements have been made out in this study, however, I connected the policy, government and academic framework to the proposed model.

The key drivers that pull the proposed model together with research findings is Munro (2011), Working Together to Safeguard Children report (2006) and Section 13 of the Children Act (1989). This hybrid of academic and government reports sets out the working collaborative arrangements of public sector professionals to protect children within the Local Safeguarding Children Board (LSCB).

Within the analysis of the findings is the lack of any strategic governance or operating model for school based programmes. The secondary data highlighted that the police simply went into some, but not all schools, and delivered a range of programmes at a varied level of competence. The data also showed that the police, following the 2014/5 review, withdrew from this function with a rationale (funding) that was open to challenge.

Pulling together the academic contribution to knowledge in the field of victimology, the lack of strategic governance or evidence base around the role of the police within a school safeguarding setting and the LSCB framework, this study proposes a model that collectively includes and addresses the issues within the analysis.

A proposed model arising from the findings:

The below figure (7:1) is the central theme to the requirement of the professional doctorate to change professional practice in the work place. The model is drawn from the research evidence (Munro, 2011), the data delineating what key professionals said (findings Chapter 6) and the subsequent analysis and discussions in chapter 7. The model did take into account the themes from the discussion and, in places the professional judgement of the author. In places, I had to make decisions based on the new evidence I had gathered and my judgement as there were parts where the respondents did not agree. However, these points were discussed in detail in the discussion chapter.

The clear theme from the research is that there is support for the police to have a role in the programmes, the blurred line is what exactly is that role? This model does set a role for the police, based on evidence, but the limitations of this are well documented in the study. The proposed model will be presented for the LCSB to consider.

School based safeguarding programmes: A proposed model for the role the Police with particular reference to Hampshire and the Isle of Wight.

Any change in professional practice as an outcome from a professional doctorate must be driven by the evidence presented. To help bring some reality to this model I have made a suggested approach.

Pre Model: An approach

- Agreement by police leaders to the approach presented in the research. This can be achieved by a formal presentation to the Force Executive.
- The lead Officer to take the principles of the model to the LSCB in Portsmouth, Southampton, Hampshire County Council and the Isle of Wight; they are the key stakeholders with the authority to embed this into their professions.

The Proposed Model: A framework for Decision Making

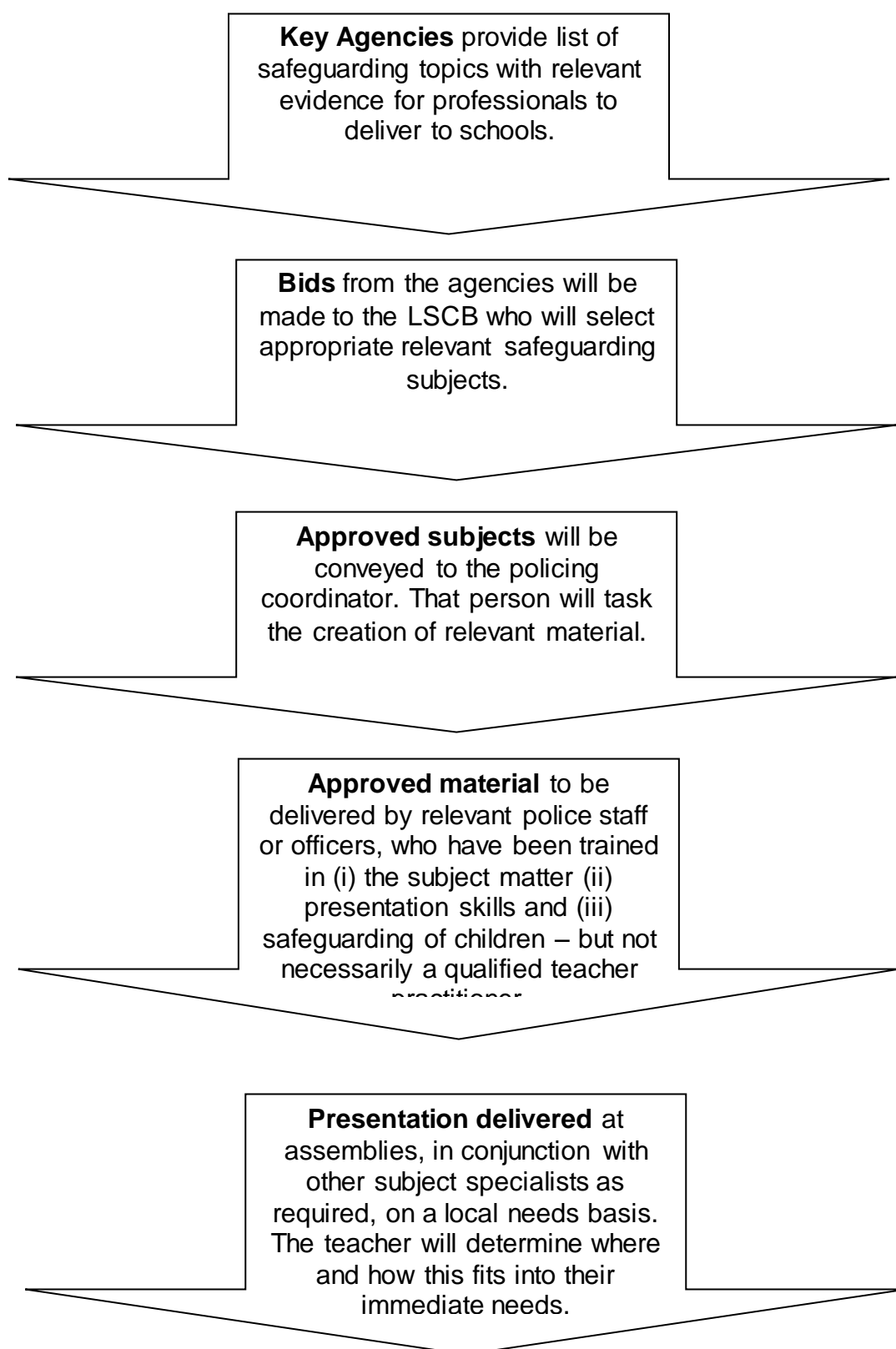


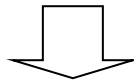
Figure: 7:1 Proposed Model

Explanatory Notes:

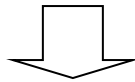
- Key Agencies, Police, Health and Fire Services to be asked to provide a list of safeguarding topics, with surrounding evidence base for the professionals to deliver to schools. This research and model.
- Bids or topics from the agencies will be taken to the relevant LSCB for the board to select which subjects they will approve.
- Topics sent down to the policing co-ordinator
- Police to write the programmes
- Police to select local district staff who/should deliver the programmes to the school assembly and/or work with PSHE staff.
- Police to train the selected staff in the programmes they are delivering and specifically with presentation skills to the children in education. The issue here is if the staff cannot be found or selected who are suitable. The research data was quite clear; the staff member must be able to perform this role.
- Send to local schools with guidance on the programmes and to work with the local Police/Health/Fire to make the presentation relevant, local and bespoke as the research evidence reported
- Teachers can adapt the programmes to meet any learning strategy and approve the overall content. For example, they may wish to refine to make more bespoke to the local demographics.

An example of the proposed model 'in action': An example being 'Prevent (against radicalisation) programme.' 7.2 Below.

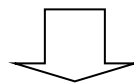
Step 1: **Rationale to deliver as agreed through the LSCB.** The radicalisation of young people was covered in the Crime and Security Act 2015. The Act recommended the Police and local authorities work together to safeguard children from being radicalised. Part of that plan is around working with schools and education. This is the collective evidence base where the need to deliver this subject in schools was met.



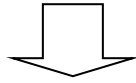
Step 2. **Design of the material.** The police are best placed to write the technical detail of the plan, with their partners in the local authority. The police school coordinator can provide help with delivery medium and the options. The content of the programme will be measured against any reaction to the contentious subjects in a school setting.



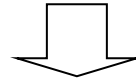
Step 3. **Subject expertise in the design.** Authors of the Prevent programme should work closely with the design team or officer. The case to support this programme is made out, it is sponsored by the Police and Local Authority.



Step 4. **PREVENT Police and Local Authority Training** The officers selected to deliver will receive their input from the PREVENT design team, made up of police and Local Authority Experts.



Step 5. **Scheduling on the academic calendar.** The officers will make contact with the schools in their districts and their respective PSHE teachers to book into the curriculum time table.



Step 6. **Who to deliver.** External speaker (for this study this will be a police officer or staff member) will deliver on completion of Step 4, and dictated through the scheduling needs of Step 5 to the school assembly with each school to have the option for smaller discussion groups facilitated by the PSHE teacher, not the Police.

Figure 7:2 Example of proposed model

The proposed model has drawn together the analysis of the findings and the literature that contributes to the literature within a victimology context and focused on the safeguarding of children by professional practitioners. The model can be adapted in any local authority area, however, there are implications of its application as set out in the Conclusions and Implications chapter (chapter 8).

This analysis chapter examined the questions raised in the findings in greater detail, whilst drawing upon the academic and government literature to present a concluding picture. The analysis has shown that the role of police in school based safeguarding programmes is blurred, but, there is agreement that the police have a role; it is the actual role that has been analysed in this study. The analysis presented the views of professionals in both education and police organisations, which makes this a balanced and professional position. The police are best placed to deliver the programmes at a school assembly. Whilst the analysis has shown some competing views on this, the evidence taken together shows this to be best option.

Whilst the police reported that to remove this function from their role was based on working towards a reduced budget, this did not emerge in the analysis, as no funding formula was found. Taking this point further the analysis made an interesting discovery, that if it was shown that delivering these programmes was a recognised police role, the police would not be able to charge for this 'service'.

The analysis made the connection between the study and the safeguarding of children within a collaborative framework (Munro, 2011), this is key in the presentation of the proposed model for professionals (LSCB) and academics (victimology) to take forward as professional practice and as an academic contribution.

CHAPTER: 8 Conclusion and Implications

This chapter will draw together my conclusions from the research into the role of the police in school based safeguarding programmes. My research questions emerged from a lack of research or common understanding in this topic and an absence of any governance or strategic direction. The lack of academic material suggested to me that the topic had limited connection to academia making this research a valuable contribution to academic knowledge within a victimology sphere.

This study has investigated the objectives of this research by carrying out interviews from a purposive sample, a detailed literature review, collection of secondary data and analysis of the new primary evidence, from this I examined the issues raised as presented in the findings of the data. The third objective of this study was to examine the implications of the research as they emerged through the findings. The research has focused on the role of the police in school based safeguarding programmes, but as a number of emerging themes have developed from the evidence which has implications for the police, education and the safeguarding of children. This chapter looked at the implications arising from the model (fig 7.1) presented in the earlier chapter, for the police and education to consider in terms of their role within the LSCB and the safeguarding of children using school based programmes as an option for them to consider.

The overarching caveat set against this research is that no profession is under any obligation or statutory duty to take this, or any part of the model. This is a model for the author to influence the Chairs and stakeholders of LSCB's to consider it as a whole concept or in part. It is also for the author to present and seek consideration of the Hampshire Constabulary Force Executive (Senior Leaders Commanders/staff equivalent and above), as to what role, if any, they wish their staff to be engaged with. This will clearly shape the model and what, if at all, is presented to the LSCB.

Implications for the Police:

The model recommends that the police are involved with school based programmes, however, the implications for the police are the varying degrees of their actual involvement, which as cited, have associated costs set against an, as yet, unmeasured outcome or value.

- The model recommends that the police research and select an evidenced based local issue that presents a significant risk to children, such as online safety or radicalisation for terrorism. This will require some analysis by police staff, coordinating the crime trends and gathering the evidence base. This is time consuming, but in the authors professional view, quite easy to select as the key threats to children are well documented and discussed at various police strategic meetings. The risk of this implication is the work load of research staff. Like many other police forces, Hampshire Police made significant reductions of their back office staff, which included researchers, therefore there is a risk of capacity. The benefit of this part of the model is that senior staff are intelligently briefed where the need is as opposed to what would be nice to deliver. The police should attach a cost to their involvement.

- Senior Leader to represent the police to sell this model and concept to other stakeholders and members of the LSCB. This is very dependent on the senior leaders' knowledge of the programmes, the model and this research. The risk here is the police failing to be convinced by the model or long term corporate memory beyond the current senior leader and member of the LSCBs.
- The benefit of this commitment from the police is the influence with the board members and ability to ensure the model is adhered to at every level.
- The next implication remains the most contentious for the police to consider. The data have highlighted a real blurred line with the physical activity of the police over a sustained period. The research has discussed the issues raised by senior staff set against the views of the practitioners in the backdrop of reality not 'within an ideal world'. There will be a physical commitment of the police, whether that is a PCSO or PC, the academic research, evidence from the practitioners and focus groups all argue that a uniformed person should deliver the programmes to an assembly audience. Accepting an assembly is not the ideal medium, it *is* when working to a cost based model. The implication here for the police is the time allocated to giving the presentation, selecting the right person and quantifying the value of their time.

- The design of the programmes is easier as this, in the authors professional judgement, requires a full time post to work across the force and all of the secondary schools, allowing local school and police teams the freedom to alter slightly to meet a local reality as the evidence has shown.

Implications for Education

- The evidence and statutory legislation requires the police and other statutory bodies to work together. The model does have a heavy implication on the police but education equally have a role. Whilst this research was not about the role of education, it would be myopic not to highlight implications for education to make the model work.
- The structure of education does make this easier as each school has a citizenship or PSHE teacher and allocated time in the curriculum. The implication will be for the teacher to work closely with the police in the design of the programme as they have the teaching qualifications and to facilitate the assembly session. The key implication will be around the follow up sessions and smaller tutor group discussions that fall out of the programme. Clearly any child issues will be addressed collectively between the police and education, such as a child who subsequently reports abuse as a result of a programme delivery.

- The head teacher will have the strategic and accountable decision to select which delivery method he or she is content with whilst balancing curriculum timetable time with the PSHE time. The head teacher can opt for a web based delivery or an assembly delivery followed by tutor group discussions.

Implications for Policy

- The Police service, like many public sector bodies are underpinned by policy, legislation and guidance. In the professional judgement of the author the model this research presents is to strike a balance between policy and guidance. To achieve policy status, it would need complete Chief Officer sign off and the question of whether this is a national or local policy would be asked; this is not a national study therefore sits better as guidance.
- Hampshire Police will have to develop a communication plan to raise awareness of staff of the existence of this model and they will need to take this to LSCB partners. Police staff will have to be selected and undergo a degree of familiarisation training around the model and of course the programmes. They should be given the freedom to merge programmes into a local bespoke context, therefore guidance should be just that, not a dictate of what to deliver, accepting there will be a degree of corporacy with the subjects.

Implications for further research

- The study has highlighted a thirst to carry out further research into this topic. A longitudinal study that can compare the delivery of the programmes with crime pattern and trends of the same age cohort over a number of years would be of great benefit to professionals and academics.
- The Criminal Justice System would benefit from a cost analysis of the involvement and activity of the police/educator set against the value or outcome of the programmes. This would help decision makers to make more informed decisions around investment into the programmes. This research should explore what is the value of the programmes: is it: raising awareness or changing behaviour?

This research examined school based safeguarding education programmes in Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. The examined literature included a literature review of the subject in a wider context outside of Hampshire and Isle of Wight. The examination produced secondary data evidence and scholarly literature to demonstrate an examination of the programmes. The secondary data showed that Hampshire Police had no structured or corporate plan to deliver school based safeguarding programmes in Hampshire and Isle of Wight schools. The structure was disjointed and relied on a police volunteer and other committed police officers and PCSO's, who designed programmes with no rationale as to why they were being delivered, into schools.

The Head of Neighbourhoods and Prevention along with the Policing and Crime Commissioner formed the view that was an area of police business that required a review. The review of the programmes drew the same the conclusion as the author. However, the strategic decision by the Police and the Policing and Crime Commissioner was to withdraw staff from delivering the programmes, due in the main to reduced budgets and staff, and divert the neighbourhood staff to problems and issues in schools where their focus was 'more effective' than delivering programmes, in terms of dealing with crime or other high priority safety actions that can be demonstrated against their core objectives and wider policing plan. This appeared to be a sensible route to take with the budget constraints '*With a 25% cut in the neighbourhood budget*' (T12).

However, there was strong evidence that a hybrid was the best option, but it was never pursued with no clear rationale why, other than cost.

The evidence from the research showed that there was no real cost formula to the delivery of the programmes or any measure of success on which to make the decision to remove the staff. The data highlighted that the preferred model was the police/PCSO to deliver the programmes, accepting this is difficult to achieve due to tight budget constraints. The evidence showed that a hybrid between the police and education was the ideal solution, however it was difficult to set ideal against reality.

Whilst most of the respondents agreed in the majority of questions there was some disagreement between senior police officers/review authors and the practitioners around who should deliver the programmes and what exactly the role of the police is, the line was very blurred. The evidence was clear, the initial delivery should be delivered by an external speaker; in the case of this research, a member of the police service. Whilst an assembly was not best delivery style, it is accepted that is the most cost effective option, however, schools should be encouraged to have smaller follow up discussion sessions delivered by teachers, which according to Whitley (2010) simply reinforces any learning or awareness.

The study found no real evidence that could define a measurement of success from safeguarding school based programmes, however, when taken into the wider context of safeguarding children by raising their awareness to risks that can allow them to make healthy informed choices, this suggests is the success factor of the programmes.

This research has presented a strategic model, as part of the professional doctorate programme, based on evidential data. The model makes a clear position on the strategic role of the police. Whilst this research concedes there is no complete agreement on what the role of the police should be, the evidence has shown that there is a role, albeit not evidentially defined.

This research has simply developed a model where the role of the police is clear and allows the local policing districts to adapt their commitment based on the skill level of their staff, the support from their local Head Teacher and capacity. The corporate framework presented in the model does give the evidence base as to which topics the police and local authorities should adopt based on a safeguarding need, however, it allows the physical delivery to be determined locally. This can range from a web based style delivered by a teacher to a full school assembly delivered by a police officer/PCSO with the option to have smaller discussion groups with the PSHE teacher. Whilst no cost is attached to these choices, it is a point for the local police commander and the Head Teacher to negotiate what works for them and ultimately helps to keep children safe.

The evidence has shown that there is a requirement and social desire to safeguard children from a range of risks and threats as this study has shown. Whilst there is no evidence to suggest safeguarding school based programmes contribute to the reduction of crime there is evidence to show the programmes are capable of delivering a far reaching safeguarding message to a large proportion of school children. The study has shown that professionals in their field or external speakers are the best people to deliver this message, or raise the awareness, there is also a need for schools to follow up the intervention with small discussion groups where the need is assessed.

Chapter one considered the wider concept of safeguarding and outlined the journey of research in sequential order together with presenting the research aims and objectives of the study. Chapter two considered the broad concept of safeguarding children. The chapter provided a narrative around the legislation and government reports intended to protect children from harm. The harm children find themselves in a modern environment is far reaching such as the threat of child sexual exploitation, violence in the home, cyber bullying and radicalisation from terrorism. The research shows that children are less likely to be offenders as they are victims, therefore making a victimology the theme that contributes to new knowledge.

A number of high profile cases, such as Victoria Climbié, demonstrated the harm children are exposed to, however, the serious case reviews presented in Rotherham and Oxford represent a closer risk to the aims and objectives of this study; it shows how vulnerable children are to sexual exploitation and how joint working is designed to reduce this risk. The chapter has shown how high profile cases trigger a government response, such as the Every Child Matters (2004) publication and the Children Act (2004). Each publication and academic material has indicated that professionals must work together to protect children; it is not a sole agency responsibility. The framework of the Local Safeguarding Children Boards is presented in this chapter which formed the basis of the proposed model presented in the research.

Chapter three considered school programmes from a national and international perspective. The Labour Government, under Tony Blair's leadership were clear in the connection between schools and harm. The government proposed the safer schools partnership as a funded project that included police officers going into schools to undertake a range of activities that did include providing school based safe guarding programmes. The initiative was diluted across the country as the financial support was reduced, however some police forces, including Hampshire, continued to support the programme in some schools but not all; this provides evidence that there is no cohesive plan or strategy in place today.

The chapter examined the All Wales Core Liaison Programme (AWCLP) supported by the Welsh Assembly. This model was subject to a high investment by the government, but worked to similar principles to the Safer Schools Partnership, but demonstrated greater cohesiveness. Academic evaluations of the AWCLA were unable to show any success of the programme. A comparative analysis was made with the US, who invested into a national project called the DARE programme relying on federal funds. Again scholarly evaluations of this project concluded no evidence of any success, however, the success criteria was not clear; the DARE programmes remains today. Finally the chapter considered relevant learning styles to the research, looking at how children learn from a very basic theoretical position.

This was extended the preferred mode of teaching showing that large classes were not the best place to learn, such as large lecture theatre, but smaller classes enhanced the learning. However, the wider evidence concluded that this was the best venue, but not practical. The desired outcome, with a limited budget and large audience is the assembly, accepting the learning maybe a consequence of this style of delivery.

Chapter four of the study examined the design and delivery of the programmes. The role of the child in the design, whilst not a direct correlation with the aims and objectives, was included as be broad in my inclusion of finding the ideal model. It was well made out in the academic literature (Hart, 1994) and within the findings that children can enhance the learning design of a programme. The key feature, and relevant to this study, is the understanding of what a child is saying or trying to translate from an adult. The child is able to articulate words and visual representation in a language they understand in a safeguarding environment, such as drugs. This inclusion allows the designer of the programmes to 'hit their captive audience'. The chapter examined role of the external speaker, in terms of this study; the role of the police as the designer or person who delivers the product. The literature was clear on this point (Robinson & Kakela, 2006) and (Coleman, 2014), that the external speaker adds value to learning and brings a degree of speciality into the learning for the students. The findings supported the literature to a point, however, the study has highlighted that there will be a cost to this for the police officer/PSCO/staff members time.

However, the evidence to use them as experts and external speakers was overwhelming. Finally the chapter investigated the collaboration of the police and education. Whilst the literature highlighted academic difficulties with joint working between the police and education (Rosiak, 2004) and (Lovell, 2005) there was merit in the working arrangements (Winstone and Pakes, 2005). However, the legislation set out in the Crime and Disorder Act, 1998 around collaborative working was clearly defined. The findings and to a greater extent the legislation in the Children Act (2004) that set out the working arrangements of the Local Safeguarding Children Board (LSCB), provide the glue to this research. The findings strongly indicated that there should be close joined up working and strategic cohesive arrangement between the police and education; this framework was presented in the proposed model of this study.

The methods used to investigate the aims and objectives were presented in chapter five. The findings of the study were set out in chapter six and were broken down into a question category. Each category provided a narrative that contained an evidential quote from a respondent. The findings did not simply allow the quote to 'do the talking' there was some contextual commentary to each quote that provided greater clarity to what was being said and how it contributed to the research. The findings were broadly similar, however, where there were blurred lines, in the main around who should deliver the programmes, how should they be funded and how they should be delivered.

Whilst the views of the respondents were evidentially recorded and presented, some explanatory notes were made such as the issues around funding. In principal it was accepted the police are the ideal organisation to deliver in a school assembly, but the caution around the cost of this, the skill level required and the dilution of large venue presentations was made. Chapter seven presented the analysis of the findings. The chapter revisited the literature and linked the analysis appropriately. The analysis was used to provide the evidence to support the proposed model in this study.

My contribution to academic literature has identified the value of this study towards safeguarding children within a victimology context. There is no current research or evidence that proposes cohesive model where police and education work collaboratively, from the strategic to the practical, to deliver safeguarding programmes in schools. Whilst there is a plethora of academic literature on victimology of children and safeguarding of children, there is very little on school based programmes, making this study new knowledge.

This study has made a substantive contribution of knowledge towards the safeguarding of children within a partnership context. The research has outlined evidence that there is a role for the LSCB in the overall strategic delivery of safeguarding programmes to school children. This is a process that is not covered in any academic literature, but is however, connected to wider academic commentary (Munro, 2011) and legislation. The new process connects the two professionals (police and education) within a legislative framework (LSCB) as set out in the proposed model (7.1 p. 254).

New knowledge is presented within this study on the issue of who should physically present and be part of the design of school based programmes. Whilst organisations like the Police have to find different ways to operate within a challenging financial climate it is understandable to see why the police have withdrawn from delivering safeguarding programmes. *Hitherto* there has been no other academic knowledge on the bespoke role of the police delivering safeguarding in UK schools. This study has focused on this particular role and function and reported that there is new evidence that the police, or other professional that can be identified as an external speaker related to safeguarding, should be the professional who delivers the programmes.

This research has further contributed to existing theoretical knowledge. The theory on social crime prevention within the context of school or early interventions can benefit from this research. Whilst social crime prevention theory does provide academics with a framework that connects the school with children as offenders or as victims (Goffredson, 2002) and (Evans, 2011), this study builds upon this theoretical foundation by showing that the school is a place where safeguarding programmes that provide awareness information to children can be delivered. The study strategically connects the theory within social crime prevention theory as an intervention, with the professional by relying on the model presented a method for professionals to integrate into professional practice.

This study has also contributed, to a lesser extent than Social Crime Prevention theory, the Rational Choice Theory (RCT) arguing that by giving children greater safeguarding awareness information, delivered by external professionals, their knowledge to assist in making safer choices is improved.

The findings within this research are unique, add value to the social crime prevention theory and offer new professional approach for professionals to safeguard children with a partnership setting.

This study has presented a model that connects the professionals who safeguard children within one single board (LSCB) and presents the opportunity to govern and reassure parents that their children are being made aware and given options to keep them safe from an evidence base of local or age specific threats. This study has contributed to a change in professional practice within safeguarding of children and has dealt with the aims and objectives set by the research.

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APPENDIX A: Summary of the Purposive Sample

Cohort	Code	Professional value	
Education	PSHE	PSHE National	<u>T7</u>
Local Authority	<u>PSHE</u>	<u>PSHE LA</u>	<u>T9</u>
Education		PSHE: Hampshire County Council and IOW	<u>T19</u>
Local Authority		Finance advisor: public sector	<u>T22</u>
Fire and Rescue Schools programme officer	Fire and Rescue PSHE	Fire and Rescue programme officer	<u>T8</u>
Education		Head Teacher	<u>T18</u>
Education		School Governor	<u>low TFG 1</u>
Education		School Governor	<u>TFG 2</u>
Police		Head of Learning and Development	<u>T20</u>
Police		Education Advisor	<u>Yes T15</u>
Police		Schools Project worker	<u>Yes T10</u>
Police		Head of neighbourhood policing	<u>T12</u>
Police		Police Constable: Safer Neighbourhood Officer involved in school engagement	<u>T16</u> <u>T17</u>
Police		Police Community and Support Officer: Involved with School engagement	<u>T14</u>
Police		Senior Police Officer: Responsible for Neighbourhood policing	<u>T13</u>
Police	Standards Manager	Education Standards Officer	<u>T21</u>
Focus Group A		Children as outlined in sample	<u>Yes TFG3</u>
Focus Group B		Children as outlined in Sample	<u>Yes TFG 4</u>
Focus Group C		Children as outlined in sample	<u>Yes TFG5</u>
Police and Crime Commissioner for Hampshire and the Isle of Wight		PCC who was elected and holds the Chief Constable to account	<u>Yes T11</u>
Education		PSHE teacher	<u>T2</u>
<u>Education</u>		<u>PSHE teacher</u>	<u>T4</u>
<u>Education</u>		<u>PSHE teacher</u>	<u>T1</u>
<u>Education</u>		<u>PSHE teacher</u>	<u>T3</u>
<u>Education</u>		<u>PSHE teacher</u>	<u>T5</u>
<u>Education</u>		<u>PSHE teacher</u>	<u>T6</u>

Appendix A: Summary of the Purposive Sample

APPENDIX B: The questions

The Question and Category	Literature
The Programmes	Safer Schools Partnership AWLSP Pontin (1996) PSHE (2013) Crick (1998)
Can you tell me your understanding of what programmes are delivered in your school/Police department/organisation?	
What is your understanding of how they are delivered? (Governor and PSHE). How do you deliver the programmes? (trainer) & (content designer). How are the programmes delivered in your area of business? (Organisation Head). What are your views on assembly sessions? What is the best option for learning i.e. small class room sessions or tutor groups?	
How do they fit into the curriculum?	
How should they fit into the curriculum?	
Should they be part of the curriculum?	
Is the time allocated to deliver them within the current curriculum adequate?	
Who decides where they fit into the curriculum and why?	
Are there occasions when police programmes by pass the curriculum. If yes or no expand. Probe	
The Design	Crick, (1998) Pontin (1996)
Who designs the programmes for PSHE programmes (org Head, PSHE teacher/trainer/designer) Who would you expect to design the programmes for PSHE programmes (Others)	
Children's Inclusion the Design	Unicef (1989) Dfes (1989) Fielding <i>et al</i> (2008) Hart (1992) Carnie (2010)
In your experience, what inclusion, if any, have children who are the target audience, had in the programme design?	
What value, if any, would allowing children to feedback on the programme design?	
How would you see this working?	
Do you think this something that the teams creating the programmes should consider: if not why, if yes why?	

The Question and Category	Literature
Evaluation	Kirkpatrick Bhabra, Hill and Ghate (2004) Stead <i>et al</i> (2011) Wysong, Aniskiewicz and Wright (1994) Palumbo and Ferguson (1995) DeJong (1997) Ringwalt <i>et al</i> (1994) Ward (1995)
How do you measure the success of the programmes?	
What is the evaluation strategy?	
How should these programmes be measured; Against what criteria?	
Costs	
Who pays for the design of the programmes?	
What is your view on the charging of the programmes by the different partners to each other	
Who should pay the programme delivery?	
Can you tell me how any charging could or should work?	
Programme delivery	PSHE (2013) Whitey (2010) AWLSCP (DARE
In your experience/role who do you think delivers police programmes?	
Who should deliver police programmes?	
What should the level of qualification and vocational training be to deliver the training and why?	
Is there a role for the PSHE here?	
Does it really matter who delivers the training, why?	
Collaboration	Lovell (2005) Rosiak () Parker and Gallagher (2007) Edwards (2007)
What is your understanding of how the police and education work together?	
How would you expect the police and education to work together?	
In your professional experience, how would you see both professions working together? At what level should they collaborate?	

The Question and Category	Literature
Is the relationship currently mature enough to allow this to happen?	
Government Policy	Safer Schools Partnership (2006) Every Child Matters (2004) ACPO (2007) & (2003)
What is your understanding of the current governance around police – education joint working to provide schools programmes?	
Is the SSP or part of the SSP embedded in your school?	
Future	
What does the future look like to you in the design, delivery and evaluation of school based PSHE programmes (focus on the police)?	

Appendix B: Questions

APPENDIX C: Supplementary questions for:

Lead Review Officer
Original Education Advisor? whether I need this as original may suffice.
Policing and Crime Commissioner
Senior Police Officer for School Engagement

The Bespoke questions:

Can you tell me why you commissioned the review (for PCC only)	
Can you tell me the Terms of Reference for the review?	
Looking at the current system of delivering the programmes can you tell me your understanding of how it was run?	
What were the positives of the old system?	
What were the negatives of the old system?	
What worked, why and how do you know?	
What did not work, why and how did you know?	
What was the methodology used in the review, rationale or if not known what did you know?	
How did you go about completing the review, incl methods and probe?	
What were the findings of the review?	
What changes, if any, did you recommend?	
Were there any other viable options?	
What was the feedback from internal staff?	
What was the feedback from external staff or partners?	
What is view of children being part of the design (you may need to explain this and put it into context)?	
What involvement have you had with schools, which ones and why?	
What involvement have you had with school governors?	
On reflection having completed the review, what would you change and why?	
What barriers can you see going forward?	
What is/was your evaluation process?	
How does your recommendations reflect other forces?	
How did you consider wider collaboration, if so, how?	
What are your views on the charging of these programmes?	
If not covered: ASK on design Who should design? Who should deliver and why teaching methods and style evidence that the recommendations will work – keep checking this.	

Appendix C: Bespoke questions

APPENDIX D: Focus Group Questions: The Governors

The questions: Governors

Opening explanation and thanks	
Aims and Objectives of the research	
Who do you think should be delivering these programmes? Why?	
Who should design the programmes? Why?	
Where should PSHE programmes sit on the school curriculum?	
Should there be any charges for the Programmes, who should pay? Why?	
How much time should be allocated to the session?	
How do you think police and education should work together in the future? What is the relationship now at the SMT level? How can it be improved?	
Would a strategic framework set at the beginning of the curriculum year work?	
What are your views on giving children a voice on the designing of the programmes?	
Any comments, advice strong views on this subject?	
Thank for their time	

Appendix D: Focus Group Questions - Governors

Whilst registered as candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for other any academic award.